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#### THE TRANSVAAL COMPROMISE.

A SMALL but well-fought skirmish at Potchefstroom, in which Lieutenant Daleymple Hay deserves the credit of showing that defeat is not inevitable in conflicts with the Boers, has concluded the operations of war in the Transval. Sir Frederick Roberts is perhaps rather to be congratulated than to be condoled with under all the circumstances, though he has in a manner been sent up on a fool's errand. Soon after the Potchefstroom affair Lord Kimberley in the House of Lords and Mr. Gladstone in the House of Commons were announcing the terms by which the Ministry have carried out the promise of the Queen's Speech. There is no necessity to discuss again the general merits of the conduct which has led to the Convention of Laing's Nek, or the aspect of that Convention viewed from the point of national honour. Silence is the best course open to those who do not care to emulate the conduct of Ham on the one hand, or to invent new meanings for the words courage, magnanimity, and statesmanship on the other. It need only be said that a Government which was really convinced of the justice of the claims which it now allows, and at the same time determined to maintain the honour of the country, would have published the conditions it intended to accord immediately after the reception of the news of the revolt, and would have adhered to them in the face of victory as well as in the face of defeat. But it is too late for any such reflection as this, or perhaps too early. Even in these days the constituencies take some time to imbibe the ideas which influence their conduct, and the platform eloquence which was so powerful in favour of the present Government is likely to be wanting against them. Nor is it desirable that both parties in the State should regard national disasters and humiliations merely as convenient levers for the overthrow of their political opponents.

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The same unreality perhaps attends the consideration of the true version—now at last obtained—of the disaster at Bronker's Spruit, the claim for justice against the murderers of Dr. Berber, and some other things of the same kind. Those who urge these points are likely to be met by the Government with the famous "Vons vous "écartez de la question." The question is an apparent settlement at any cost, not the punishment of bygone atrocities, or even, it would seem, the safeguarding of faithful friends from the vengeance of the triumphant Boers. The Royal Commission is to busy itself with the questions of frontier and of the policy to be adopted towards the natives, probably because too many good friends of the Government belong to the various Societies for protecting aborigines and repressing slavery to make it safe to neglect these points. But nothing was at first said of securing the position of the loyal Dutchmen, or of Englishmen resident in the Transvaal. Nor did the question of indemnity to those who, on the faith of the declared immutability of the annexation, have purchased property in the territory, now to be given back to the Boers, appear to have entered into consideration. Inquiries later produced gratifying assurances that the point would be considered, but at first it seemed to Lord Kimberley and Mr. Gladstone too unimportant for mention. Of the positive conditions, some are merely concerned with the moment. Such are the withdrawal of the Boers, the maintenance for the present of the English garrisons, and the undertaking not to advance into the Transvaal.

The last appears, on the face of it, an unwise concession; and it makes the withdrawal of the Boers from Laing's Nek comparatively meaningless, while, inasmuch as Laing's Nek itself is in Natal, the QUEEN has bound herself not to occupy her undisputed territory. The garrisons appear to have been well able to hold their own; and therefore, as far as these parts of the Convention go, the advantage is clearly with the Boers. The first four articles are, however, of the greatest importance. These stipulate—first, the suzerainty of the QUEEN; secondly, the complete internal independence of the Boers; thirdly, the control of foreign relations by England; fourthly, the establishment of an English Resident at Pretoria. In substance these conditions seem to grant to the fullest extent the demands with which the Boers took uparms. Looked at in detail, they amount to a settlement which would have been tolerable enough if it had been freely granted, and not extorted from England under the pressure of defeat. Suzerainty means anything or nothing, and Lord Randolff Churchill's galling reference to Eastern Roumelia, if not wholly well timed, was legitimate, and indeed inevitable. The value of the admission of a Resident depends almost entirely on the powers with which he is furnished, such an officer occupying in different cases positions varying from that of Mayor of the Palace to that of a mere Consul-General. Complete self-government is enjoyed by many English colonies, and there is no reason why it should not be enjoyed by the inhabitants of the Transvaal, provided it is not intended to mean untempered anarchy. One of the original complaints which led to the annexation was that it was impossible to recover a debt in the Sonth African Republic, and there is no reason to believe that the Boers will be more ready to discharge their liabilities, public and private, when they have been victorious over the English than when they were unsuccessful against the Caffres. The control of foreign relations may sound a greater concessi

Let it be repeated, however, that it is not the tenor so much as the circumstances of this arrangement which make it necessary to regard it with distrust and dislike. In the abstract the establishment of a kind of larger Andorra or San Marino, rendered powerless for harm, and giving its inhabitants the right to enjoy their unsociable license without disturbance, has nothing in it peculiarly open to objection, and might very likely bring the will otherwisp of confederation somewhat nearer. Arranged a year ago by the present Government, such a settlement would probably have been received with but little grumbling by either political party, and would have had a chance of bearing peaceable fruit. Offered three months ago and unflinchingly adhered to, with the addition in case of resistance of an insistance on the right to march an English army through the country, it would have been

awkward but tolerable. As it is, besides the danger of a renewal of the old difficulties, it presents many new and far more formidable ones. It does not need a pessimist to see in it the beginning not the end of troubles. Two entirely distinct springs of danger seem to be unsealed by it. In the first place, there is the certainty of a dangerous ferment in the minds of the native tribes, notably the Zulus and Swazies, both of whom despise the Boers, and with cause, while hitherto they have had a salutary respect for the English. It is to be feared that savage warriors will not understand the refinements of homekeeping Radicals about magnificent courage and sublime superiority to the considerations of military pride. They will not comprehend the niceties of suzerainty and the will not comprehend the niceties of suzerainty and the control of foreign relations, and will either in their innocence think to gratify us by avenging our defeat on the Boers, or imagine that they can with impunity attack those whom the foes they have themselves overcome have defeated so easily. Nothing, it is known, determined the Zulus to submission so much as the completeness with which their country was invaded and traversed, and nothing is so likely to convince them of our failure as the under-taking not to march into the Transvaal. But the natives outside the Boer limits form only one party to the question. Every one who knows anything about the subject knows the antipathy with which the Dutch portion of the popu-lation of the Cape States regards the hitherto dominant race. Their superiority in numbers has hitherto been compensated by an inferiority in military prestige and by the fear of England. The present proceedings are not calculated to make this equilibrium stable. The incendiary language of the insurgent leaders might be dismissed as a merely legitimate weapon if it did not correspond to known sentiments and wishes of the Dutch and the Africander sentiments and wishes of the Dutch and the Africander population generally, outside as well as inside the territory of the resuscitated Republic. It is possible, of course—almost all things are possible—that things may turn out better than they seem likely to turn out. But South Africa is a perpetually smouldering fire, and it breaks out into actual blaze at the very smallest addition of new fuel or disturbance of the old ashes. It is to be feared that a new and formidable occasion of conflagration has been supplied by the pustotesmallike irresolution of an supplied by the unstatesmanlike irresolution of an English Ministry and the unfortunate failure of an English general.

### RUSSIAN CHANGES.

THE circular despatch and manifesto of ALEXANDER III. is, as befits the occasion, vague and conventional in tone, though perhaps some passages in it may hereafter prove to have had a practical meaning. The EMPEROR recognizes his primary and indispensable duty when he declares that his first care will be the improvement of the internal condition of Russia. Experience will show whether he intends to effect his object by granting any kind of Constitution. Since the time when the death of his elder brother made the Grand Duke ALEXANDER an important personage, he has been supposed to combine with some kind of Liberal sympathies the narrowest prejudices, and perhaps the most dangerous propensities of his countrymen. It has been thought that he blamed his father for maintaining without change the autocratic mode of government; and it was known that his influence was directed to the promotion of a warlike policy in 1876. ALEXANDER II. had neither taste nor aptitude for military pursuits, although he thought it necessary to join the army in Bulgaria after its early reverses. The new EMPEROR seems to have inherited in an altered form the propensities of his grandfather, but he is not supposed to favour despotic principles of civil administration. NICHOLAS I., though he spent his life in drill and parades, discovered in the war of 1827 and 1828 that he had no skill or ability as a general. The CZAREWITCH, during the late Turkish war, commanded a large army with creditable success, and he is believed to have despised and resented the incapacity of his uncle, who was Commander-in-Chief. The possibility of his pursuing hereafter an adventurous and aggressive policy is perhaps increased by his conscionsness of military ability. At the beginning of his reign he will be too much occupied with questions of internal policy to engage wantonly in schemes of conquest. The danger will be greater when he may perhaps be tempted to divert attention from domestic complications and trou-

bles. Some indication of the EMPEROR's tendencies will be furnished by his choice of a successor to the aged Chancellor. The employment of General Ignatiff would raise apprehensions of a policy of turbulence and intrigue. Count Schounaloff would be disposed to maintain the European peace which is in some degree the result of his prudence and moderation. Count Melikoff is not known to have taken any active part in foreign affairs, but his services both as a general and as an administrator may probably recommend him to the confidence of his Sovereign.

No inference can be drawn from the official rebuke inflicted on journalists who in the first hours of the new reign undertook to urge the immediate introduction of constitutional or representative government. Even for the safety of the EMPEROR, it was, as they contended, necessary to divide the responsibility which in popular estimation, as in truth, is now concentrated on the head of the Autocrat. The assassins of the present day draw no nice distinctions The assassins of the present day draw no nice distinctions between despotism and limited monarchy. Within two years the King of ITALY narrowly escaped the attack of an assassin. An Irish member lately was understood to express in public a hope that an English HARTMANN would be found to murder the QUEEN. The Nihilists would not be for a moment conciliated by the convocation of a Russian Parliament. As long as property, family relations, and civilized society exist, they will continue their detestable machinations. The ruffians who at New York, Chicago and publishing also London, met, to celebrate detestable machinations. The ruffians who at New York, Chicago, and unhappily also London, met to celebrate the assassination of ALEXANDER II., rejoiced in his death less because he was an absolute ruler than because he held one of the most conspicuous positions in the world. A similar explanation may probably be given of the sympathies of M. ROCHEFORT, which extend alike to the murder of the EMPEROR and to Mr. PARNELL'S schemes for plundering Irish landowners. Although it is unlikely that ALEX-ANDER III. should adopt liberal measures in the hope that they may conduce to his personal security, he may perhaps try the experiment either of a legislative or of a consultative Council. The election of either body would probably be entrusted to the local Assemblies, which already exercise certain municipal and judicial functions. The nobility, though they have never exercised political power, perhaps be allowed separate representation; but absolute sovereigns, when they part with a fraction of their authority, are, for the most part, jealous of aristocratic influence, and they are anxious to satisfy popular aspira-It is impossible to foresee the result of any measure of the kind. A Parliament may be a mere form, or it may engross all the powers of Government; but there are circumstances in Russia which would tend to restrain hasty encroachments on the prerogative of the Crown. The peasantry would be slow to understand that their allegiance was due to any authority but the Czar. Some of them may be open to revolutionary incitements, but they would feel no enthusiasm for an Assembly of members belonging to the upper and middle classes. Ambitious reformers would consequently have to deal not only with an Emperor commanding an enormous army, but with a hostile popula-It is nevertheless barely possible that a Parliament would do good by exposing the abuses of administration. The Turkish Parliament, which, after a short existence, disappeared during the Russian war, exhibited unexpected patriotism and independence. If any kind of representa-tive Government is possible in Russia, it may be as reason-ably established at the beginning of a reign as on any other occasion; and it would be more advantageously introduced by an Emperor who still retained vast powers than by agitators or even by popular leaders.

Administrative improvements would be safer and easier than constitutional innovations, and they are more urgently required. The late EMPEROR did much to purify the tribunals, and he abolished some of the cruel punishments which were habitually inflicted at the discretion of minor officials; but the arbitrary jurisdiction of the police, and especially the exile of untried prisoners to Siberia, involve the perpetration of grievous wrong. The traditional hardships of the penal journey are still inflicted on sufferers who may be innocent, and who are perhaps neither convicted nor accused of any ordinary crime. The outrages committed by the Nihilists have naturally rendered the authorities suspicious; and political malcontents are punished because they might perhaps have conspired against the Government. Many of the exiles are transported by administrative measures,

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without the pretence of judicial inquiry. It is not known whether the plots of the Nihilists are in any way connected with the anomalies of political sentences; but Vera Sassulich, who began the late series of assassinations, had suffered heavily through the cruelty and tyranny of the police. More desperate conspirators may probably be instigated by motives with which it is difficult to reckon. The subversion of received morality has produced a race of fanatics who are willing to incur any risk in the cause of crime. The Nihilists in Russia, the Communards of Paris, and the wretches who practise murder and arson in Ireland and in England are beyond the reach of reason. Any measures which may be found necessary for the protection of the EMPEROR and his family and servants against assassins will be approved by Europe. It unfortunately happens that no suggestion can be made of means for the promotion of the object. It had been vainly hoped that conspirators had been baffled or alarmed during the administration of Count MELIKOFF. The late during the administration of Count Melikoff. The late trials were also supposed to have resulted in the discovery and punishment of the principal leaders. Henceforth a period of comparative tranquillity will fail to restore public confidence. No early change is to be expected in the foreign policy of the Empire. The reputed dislike of Alexander III. for Germany will, if it really exists, be suppressed or suspended. It is possible that Russia may intervene more actively than before in the negotiations for the extension of Greek territory; but experience shows for the extension of Greek territory; but experience shows that sovereigns on their accession generally follow, at least in the first instance, the policy of their predecessors. The new EMPEROR may perhaps not feel his father's seutimental attachment to his kinsfolk at Berlin; but he will not willingly provoke the hostility of his powerful neighbour. Political assassinations, which two or three centuries ago were sometimes organized by one ruler against another, now form a common ground of danger and of co-operation to all crowned heads. A friendly understanding with Germany implies pacific relations with Austria. The EMPEROR is supposed to regard France with friendly feelings, and he has no personal cause of quarrel with England. Any Parliamentary experiment which he may try will be watched with interest and good-will.

#### THE NAVY.

In the Session before last the House of Commons ordered the Admiralty to make out a list of its own broken pledges; that is to say, to give an account of the amount of shipping estimated for, and of the amount actually built, during a period of fourteen years. The Admiralty had perforce to obey, and painful was the story they had to tell. In seven years out of the fourteen the work done at the dockyards had been largely below the amount promised, and the improved method of estimating tonnage adopted in 1874 had not led to any diminution of the deficiencies. It is true that in 1875-76 the Admiralty built 282 tons more than they promised, and that in the succeeding year they very nearly carried out their engagements; but they were 1,918 tons short in 1874-75, 2,775 tons short in 1877-78, and 1,666 tons short in 1878-79. How far the promises made for 1880-81 have been broken cannot yet be ascertained; but, unfortunately, there is no reason for supposing that the vicious habit of undertaking too much in order to please the House of Commons early in the Session has been abandoned. The pleasure, therefore, with which the unusually ambitious programme lately announced had been received should be tempered by the thought that, in all probability, the official imagination which burns so ardently at Whitehall has produced its usual effect, and that the eloquent Secretary of the ADMIRALTY has followed the example of the more or less eloquent First Lords who have preceded him, and has promised considerably more than can possibly be achieved.

It must in fairness be said, however, that the amount of work promised is so large that, if only a fair proportion of it is done, the strength of the navy will be greatly increased. The criticism made by Liberal members on the naval administration of the late Government has not been forgotten now that the Liberals are in office. During the latter part of Mr. SMITH'S reign it was urged against him, not without justice, that he did not build enough. Lord NOETHEROOK, Mr. BRASSEY, and Mr. TREVELYAN are rightly determined that the Admiralty shall no longer be liable to this reproach, and they intend to advance rapidly and

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to complete a large number of very powerful vessels of war. In the first place the *Inflexible* is to be completed. In the discussion on the Estimates last week Mr. Trevelyan was able to assure the House of Commons that TREVELYAN was able to assure the House of Commons that she would be ready for commission in June. This ship was begun in February 1874, so that when she is finished her construction will have occupied seven years and a half. It is true that all work on her was suspended for some time owing to the utterly unnecessary inquiry which Sir E. Reed forced on the Admiralty; but, when every allowance is made for this delay, the time taken in brilding her must still appear enormous. We once said of this ship that she would probably be finished about the same time as Cologne Cathedral; but in this we were over-sanguine, for the Cathedral has long received its finials, while the Inflexible still lingers in the hands of the artificers. She is to be followed by the Ajax and Agamemnon, vessels which, though smaller than she is, much resemble her, and belong to the first rank of ironelads. Three line-of-battle ships, to use the old expression, will therefore increase ships, to use the old expression, will therefore increase the strength of the navy during the present year, if the Admiralty keeps its promises. The Polyphemus, a vessel Admiralty keeps its promises. The *Polyphemus*, a vessel of extraordinary design which is generally supposed to have been suggested by that wonderful veteran, Sir George SARTORIUS, who fought at Trafalgar, is also to be ready to SARTORIUS, who fought at Transgar, is also to be ready to ram antagonists and to discharge torpedoes innumerable before April 1882. In advancing vessels the Admiralty mean to work as hard as in completing them. The Colossus, a steel ship of 9,150 tons, now building at Portsmouth, and the Majestic, of the same tonnage, now building at Pembroke, are to be more than half completed; and the Collingwood, a barbette ship, designed some time ago, but apparently only just begun, is to be rapidly advanced. With second-class ships the present Board of the Admiralty promises to be as active as with the greater ones. Two fast cruisers of a new type, intended to possess very high speed and great offensive power, were projected by the late Board. To these the present Board have seemingly added one, and they intend to add another. None of these vessels will be ready this year, but they are to be pushed on, to use the official expression, and probably two of them will be added to the navy in 1882. At the time when they are lannoched it may be hoped that considerable progress will have been made with two new vessels which are to equal them in speed, and greatly to surpass them in strength and definative power. Impressed and certainly most justly ram antagonists and to discharge torpedoes innumerable speed, and greatly to surpass them in strength and defensive power. Impressed, and certainly most justly impressed, with the absolute need for fast cruisers to protect impressed, with the absolute need for fast cruisers to protect our commerce, the present Board have caused a new design to be prepared, on which apparently all the constructive skill of Mr. Barnaby and his staff have been concentrated. The projected vessel is to be of 7,300 tons, and to have engines of 8,000 horse-power, which will be protected by steel-faced armour 10 inches thick. Her speed will be 16 knots, and she will carry en barbette four 18-ton breechloading guns, which at 1,000 yards can pierce 13 inches of steel-faced armour, and other guns, smaller, but of great range. One ship of this type is to be begun at Portsmouth and another at Pembroke, while a third is to be constructed in a private yard. Unfortunately it is not very likely that any one of these will be able to take the sea before 1885 at the earliest.

With regard to smaller vessels the Admiralty does not intend to be idle, though there is not to be the same proportionate activity as with larger ones. Three gunboats are to be finished, and seven more or less advanced. A despatch vessel is to be begun, and two paddle-steamers are to be built. How many torpedo-boats are likely to be set afloat during the year it is impossible to tell. At present there are only nineteen of the larger kind, and this certainly is a miserably small number for our navy; but Mr. Teevelyan stated that there were thirty in course of construction. As, however, the Estimates give no information respecting these marvellous little vessels, it is impossible to say how many are likely to be added to the effective naval force during the year. It is greatly to be hoped that there has been no niggardliness with respect to these, as their importance in warfare can hardly be overrated, and as large numbers of them have been added to foreign navies. In another and even more important requisite for warfare, offensive and defensive, our navy has been allowed to lag behind, but the present rulers of the Admiralty seem in some slight degree to realize the mistake which has been made. For

a considerable time past foreign Governments have seen that muzzle-loading guns on board ships of war must be replaced by breechloaders, and have taken steps to effect that important change; but our Government has been content to remain idle, and at the present moment there is not, to use the words of the Secretary of the Admiratry, a single heavy breechloading gun mounted on board any of our ships. Some measures are now to be taken to supply this very grave deficiency. The Shah and Raleigh and other vessels are to be armed, at some time not indicated, with breechloaders, and a weapon of enormous power has been designed for the new steel cruisers. Happily there will be plenty of time to perfect it before they are likely to be afloat.

In other and smaller matters great attention has obviously been paid to the needs of the service by those who now govern at Whitehall, and the scheme of the Admiralty for the coming financial year is at once more ambitious and more complete than any that has for a long period been offered to the House of Commons and the country. Unfortunately the disagreeable question we have spoken of above must necessarily arise with regard to it. How far will it be carried out, and what percentage must be allowed above must necessarily arise with regard to it. How far will it be carried out, and what percentage must be allowed for the shortcomings which, when the lapse of twelve months has dimmed the memory of glowing promises, officials pass lightly over? One fact which, patent as it is, appears as yet to have attracted little attention, seems to throw a certain doubt on Mr. TREVELYAN'S elaborate programme. The present Board propose very largely to surpass during the coming year the shipbuilding which the late Board projected for the year now expiring. At the Royal Dockyards they intend to build 3,600 tons more than their less aspiring predecessors proposed for 1880-81. Yet, strange to say, they ask for very little more money. The net increase over the sum voted for the expiring year is only 158,984*l*, and this certainly cannot be considered a large amount when so much is undertaken. Clearly the Admiralty hope to effect considerable economies in some respects, and there is too much reason to fear that one of their economies will be most unwise. The late Board took so much trouble about the repairs of ships that their successors need not for a time of ships that their successors need not for a time go to any great expense on this score; but, nevertheless, some repairs are necessary, and these they seem likely to neglect. Mr. W. H. SMITH, when commetting on Mr. TREVELYAN'S speech, pointed out that in the Estimates no provision whatever is made for the repairs required by the Raleigh, the Bellerophon, the Rupert, and another vessel. Either, then, there must be considerable expenditure on work of this kind which has not been allowed for, or else a saving of the most feelich kind. been allowed for, or else a saving of the most foolish kind is contemplated. Another way of saving, yet more un-wise, has also seemingly found favour at Whitehall. While proposing to add largely to the strength of the navy, the Admiralty intend to diminish the number of seamen in the service. The reasons given by Mr. TREVELYAN for this step were not a little curious. He said that the decrease in the number of blue jackets asked for was mainly due to the diminution which it was thought necessary to make a few years back in the number of boys. No doubt a diminution in the number of boys was made, and, as we urged at the time, most unwisely made, by the late Administration. Now this reduction is given as a reason for diminishing the number of sailors, or, in other words, the efficiency of the navy; and, marvellous to say, the policy which has produced this bad result is to be followed, as the number of boys is to be yet further reduced. Our present supply of seamen being insufficient, the future supply is to lessened. The extent to which this reduction has been carried does not seem to be generally appreciated, and it may, therefore, be worth while to call attention to it. In 1878 the number of boys asked for was 6,300; in 1879 it was 5,300; in 1880, 4,900. Now the to it. In 1878 the number of boys assault of 5,300; in 1879 it was 5,300; in 1880, 4,900. Now the Board proposes to reduce yet further this small number, Board proposes to reduce yet further this small number. and only asks for 4,700 boys. It is not difficult to foresee that a few years hence we shall have a First Lord complaining of the difficulty of manning the navy, and demonstrating in the most indisputable manner that seamen for war-ships require long training, and that a force of them cannot be improvised. It is scarcely possible to doubt that the present Board is making a grave mistake for the sake of a temporary saving. In another respect they seem blind to the advantages of wise expenditure. They propose, it is true, to authorize the construction of breechloaders; but they do not appear even now fully to

realize the defective nature of the present armament of the navy, or the urgent need that there is for changing it as rapidly as possible. In a brief but pertinent speech, which has scarcely attracted the notice it merited, Mr. Rendel, the member for Montgomeryshire, pointed out how deficient our war-ships are in offensive power, owing to their having only muzzle-loading guns. He showed that the guns with which the new cruisers are to be armed will have, weight for weight, double the power of the guns now used, and argued, logically enough, that the whole British navy might be considered to be at half power according to the existing state of artillery. To show how conscious the rulers of foreign navies are of the necessity for re-armament, he went on to state that one Company alone was now making 116 guns, every one of which was equal in power to the guns of the new cruisers, and all of which were being made for vessels actually afloat. In answer Mr. Trevelyan could only say that he and his colleagues were not entirely responsible for the present state of things, and that the War Office had taken money for 12 big guns and 103 smaller ones. In other words, the War Office is authorized to make at some future time not specified, guns for the most part far inferior in power to those which are now being made by one private firm. It seems, then, that, though the present rulers of the Admiralty contemplate the introduction of breechloading guns, they have failed to realize the absolute necessity for prompt and extensive change, or, at all events, have not urged it with sufficient energy on the War Office. This error with regard to a subject which is now thoroughly understood, and the other errors which have been mentioned, are much to be regretted, and greatly detract from the merits of a scheme which is in some respects the best and most complete that has been submitted to Parliament and the country for many years.

#### THE CANDAHAR DEBATE.

THE debate on the abandonment of Candahar in the ■ House of Commons was in this respect inferior in interest to the earlier debate in the House of Lords, that its conclusion was a foregone one. No one except reckless partisans could say that it was certain, however probable it might be, that the Upper House would affirm Lord Lytton's motion. No one with the slightest power of political observation could doubt that Mr. Gladstone's obedient majority—returned, as Lord Derby reminded us, especially to undo the Afghan policy of the late Government—would obey the instructions and example of Mr. Gladstone's Indian Secretary, and refuse to listen to argument. It is true that the question of the retention of Candahar is entirely independent of the question of the Indian policy of Lord Lytton. It is only connected with it in the sense in which the conduct of any affair is dependent on the conduct of affairs previous to it. That we went to Candahar, let it be granted for the sake of argument, was a mistake, or even a crime. It does not follow that our retiring from it is an act necessitated by sound judgment and good conscience. It is necessary to repeat this, wearisome as the iteration may be, because of the steady ignoring of the point by almost every defender of the action of the Government. But that ignoring of itself almost settled the question of the decision of the House of Commons. It is a merely decision of the House of Commons. It is a merely necessary compliment to an assembly of ordinary intelligence to suppose that, so long as it refuses to look at more than one set of premisses, it can only come to one set of conclusions. Yet the House of Commons had some interesting new matter before it. It was, of course, unfortunate that the papers sent for by the Government should have gone astray. But the fact of the transference of Candahar to ABDUERAHMAN was more definitely in evidence then it had previously been end with finitely in evidence than it had previously been, and with it the imminence, if not the certain consequence, of a conflict between Abdurrahman and Ayous. The Russian forces on the northern border of Afghanistan who were left in nubibus, somewhere near Askabad, have been heard of on trustworthy information. They are on the lower course of the river which flows past Herat, and there is nothing to prevent General Skobeleff from having himself rowed to the very gates of the famous city. Sir Lewis Pelly has completed a singularly able, moderate, and, above all, actual plea for the retention of the position. The acceptance of the principle of paying the cost of Indian warfare

has made it more than ever necessary that England should take the utmost care to avoid unnecessary expense in future. So that the Commons had the means of considering the question with not a little fresh light, if they chose to use it, instead of shutting their eyes and echoing Lord Hart-Ington's non possumus. The advocates of the abandonment might at the eleventh hour have risen to the level of the occasion, and have addressed themselves seriously to the task of converting reasonable opponents, instead of abusing Lord Litton, Lord Salisbur, Sir Bartle Freer, Lord Napier of Magdala, and every one who has dared to differ with them. For it must be once more asserted that, at any rate, a very large number of those who doubted the wisdom of the Government course did so on grounds which are as compatible with a disapproval of the march into Afghanistan and the Treaty of Gandamak as with an approval of these

When, however, the debate actually began, a statement was made by Sir Charles Dilke, which in one sense took all the interest out of it, and in another added to that interest very considerably. Sir Charles informs us that the new Czar has recalled General Skobeleff to St. Petersburg, and has put a stop to all those operations which have recently occupied Russia in Central Asia. Cavillers may wish that the statement were made in a more precise and definite manner; they may remember that General KAUFMANN is a very hard man to put a stop to, and that he has survived not a few discouragements; they may inquire whether this putting a stop means the relinquishment of the Akhal oasis, as well as of all designs on Merv. If it means this, cadit questio, at least to a very great extent. If it does not, the arguments remain as great extent. If it does not, the arguments remain as before. Yet those arguments, as usual, were handled with entire one-sidedness in the discussion. We shall take leave to pass over Mr. P. J. SMYTH's eloquent but unpractical disquisition on ethics, which had besides been amply answered beforehand in the House of Lords. The remaining advocates of abandonment rested their case for the most part on the old untenable grounds. Sir CHARLES DILKE manifested his fitness for the office he holds by saying that nothing had changed in the situation since the Treaty of Mr. Buxton echoed Lord Derby's contention Gandamak. populus locutus est causa finita est. Mr. HERBERT GLADSTONE obeyed an impulse pardonable in a young speaker fresh from his studies by talking about the fall of Rome. Unfortunately for his argument, the fall of Rome was preceded by with-drawals, not advances, and he himself showed that he was entirely unacquainted with the actual wishes even of the most forward of the forward Indian school. Mr. Stanmost forward of the forward Indian school. Mr. Stan-Hope from the practical and Mr. Gieson from the political side had no difficulty in making good their case, and the discussion of the financial question by the former was in particular complete. But Sir Charles Dilke's statement, if it can be accepted in its full sense, at once took the point out of his own arguments and gave a practical victory to his opponents. If the Russian conquest of South-Eastern Turkistan is really given up, if the troops are withdrawn—say to Kizil Arvat—the Akhal Tekkes restored to their independence, all attempts at rectification of frontier abandoned, and the pioneering zeal of the Transcaspian officials in one direction and the Transoxian officials in the other restrained, the main argument for the retention of Candahar at the present moment will be gone. There will remain not a few arguments of weight drawn from the internal condition and recent history of Afghanistan, but they are of less importance. Accepting Sir Charles's statement as an accurate and frank one, we at least have no difficulty in admitting that the case for abandonment and for retention becomes so even that it hardly matters on which side the balance inclines. Quetta did very well as a post of observation while the Russians were on the Caspian Littoral and behind the Oxus; it will do very well when they return to that posi-tion. But all depends on that; and if that is the case, the Opposition and the opponents of the abandonment of Candahar have gained a virtual victory far more gratifying, because more nationally beneficial, than a party triumph in Parliament.

It may seem that this is allowing too much to the single point of Russian operations and designs. But, in truth, the nearest approach which has been made by any opponent of the retention of Candahar to a statement of the actual position is that made by the *Times* on the morning of the debate. "To retain Candahar is frankly to declare "to Russia that the struggle must come, and that we

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"have begun to prepare for it." The words adumbrate The words adumbrate the truth, but in so doing, after the manner of shadows, they disfigure it. "To retain Candahar," it would be fairer to say, "is to declare to Russia that we have at "last begun to prepare for the struggle, and so to hint "to her that she had better not attempt it." We are not of those who regard the earth as a hunting-ground from which it were good and pleasant to cheen the ground from which it were good and pleasant to chase the CZAR. On the contrary, we believe that the interests of Russia and England in Asia, at any rate, can only actually clash if aggression on the one side is tempted by cowardice or ostrich-like blindness on the other. But, so long as statesmen like the Duke of ARGYLL affect to ignore the facts of Russian advance; so long as the preposterous doc-trine that the further that advance is continued the further ought Great Britain to draw back finds utterance outside of Colney Hatch or the Eleusis Club, so long will this very temptation exist. There can be no doubt at all in the mind of any one who knows geography and mili-tary history that, while the Russian possessions on the south-eastern Caspian shore were confined to a fringe of coast, as they were but the other day, Quetta was as good an outpost as we needed. But the circumstances have been an outpost as we needed. But the circumstances have been entirely changed by the advance which has brought the Russian arms, not indeed to Merv—Merv, as has been more than once pointed out, is a place of comparatively small importance to us—but to the neighbourhood, as by hardly an exaggeration it may be called, of Herat. Some partisans may exclaim at this expression; but if, as is stated, the Russians are at Tejend, they are, in reference to Heret much as an army on the Layres Parabase. ference to Herat, much as an army on the Lower Danube is to Vienna, with the difference that the obstacles in their way are fewer. In one sense, of course, their presence in the last corner of Turkestan is indifferent to England, in the last corner of Turkestan is indifferent to England, inasmuch as England has not the slightest wish to go there herself. We have nothing to do beyond the Hindu Koosh; the point is to recognize that Russia has nothing to do on this side of it. In theory, English statesmen of all parties recognize this fact; in practice, the leaves of the artichoke are allowed to be eaten one by of the artichoke are allowed to be eaten one by one. Perhaps, if any one chooses to advance the argument, the invasion of Afghanistan was especially unfortunate in determining Russia to recover her lost prestige by overwhelming the Tekkes, and in giving occasion to Ayour's expedition, which showed the astonishing ease with which Afghanistan itself can be traversed. But, if it be so, a sensible man does not abstain from attempts to put his burning house out because he disapproves of the conduct of the person who sets it on fire. It would be as reasonable to do this as to decline to recognize the fact that the Cossack horses have actually drunk of the stream which flows past Herat, and that from Herat to the border of India a hostile force has marched with guns and baggage almost before our troops, then all but on the spot, could get ready to meet it.

#### CRETE AND THE PORTE.

THE accounts of the negotiations at Constantinople are not encouraging. According to a not improbable conjecture, the personal fears of the Sultan have been revived by the assassination of the Emperor of Russia. There are not, as far as is known, any Nihilists in Turkey; but religious or political fanaticism may be equally dangerous. It is possible that zealous Mahometans might resent and revenge the voluntary transfer of territory containing a population of true believers to the dominion of infidels; yet it appears that the Turkish Ministers have lately proposed a similar surrender. The suggestion that Crete should be substituted for a part of the disputed territory on the mainland seems to have been a grave mistake. The Turks have weakened their title to a possession which was for the time undisputed, without displacing any argument which had recommended to the European Powers the arrangement which was approved at Berlin. The reason for giving Thessaly and Epirus to Greece was not so much the expediency of enlarging a petty kingdom, as the justice of emancipating a Greek and Christian population from an alien and obnoxious sovereignty. It follows that the annexation of Crete or of all the islands in the Archipelago to the Greek kingdom would not invalidate the claim of Thessaly and of a part of Epirus to liberation. If the annexation is not now effected by

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diplomatic or forcible methods, the demand will be repeated again and again until it is finally conceded. It is difficult to understand the obstinate refusal of a sacrifice which would be far more tolerable than the almost certain consequences of a rupture. The majority of the Powers would have agreed to exclude Janina and Metzovo from the territory to be surrendered, though some of them reserved the alleged right of Greece to insist on the frontier defined at Berlin in default of an immediate settlement. According to the latest accounts, the Ambassadors had suspended the negotiations, although they still left to the Turks the option of a voluntary overture.

The conditional willingness of the Sultan to surrender Crete may probably be explained by the limited nature of the sovereign rights which he still retains in the island, and also perhaps by the belief of his advisers that the Greeks would not find Crete a desirable possession. The Mahometaus there form a minority of the population, and they no longer retain exceptional privileges. Their Christian neighbours, who are as warlike as themselves, have, since the establishment of local administrative independence, taken advantage of their superior numbers to affront and perhaps to oppress the once dominant race. The Governor, though he is a Greek Christian, is unpopular because he is supposed to be loyal to the Sultan; and it is said that the Cretan Assembly intends to punish him for the discharge of his duty by reducing his salary. The prospect of a war between Turkey and Greece has caused disturbances in parts of the island, which may probably expand into civil war. It may have been thought at Constantinople that so insubordinate a dependency was not worth keeping, or at least that the loss of the island would not compromise the interests of the Sultan so directly as the curtailment of his continental dominions. It was strange that the Turks should expect the European Powers at the last moment to abandon their claims for the purpose of engaging in a fresh negotiation. The Greek Government and its friends and patrons will take note of the admission that the possession of Crete is not indispensable to the safety or greatness of the Turkish Empire; and at a more convenient season they will proceed to draw the practical conclusion that an island with a considerable Greek population ought to be annexed to the kingdom. Not many years have passed since an obstinate insurrection in Crete was openly promoted and favoured by the Government of Athens, which was fitfully encouraged or at other times checked by the capricious policy of Napoleon III. It is remarkable that since that time the Greek Government has advanced no cla

Travellers and residents who have studied the petty politics of Crete attribute to the Christian inhabitants a desire of local independence, combined, as usually happens in such cases, with a dislike of the continental Greeks. Little communities are in proportion to their isolated circumstances almost always jealous of their neighbours, even if they are not inclined to affect superiority to strangers. The inhabitants of the Isle of Wight contumeliously stigmatize as "overers" visitors or immigrants from the Hampshire coast. The people of Crete are not fully conscious of their own insignificance, or of the precarious position of small Republics among the great military States of the present day. For the moment they are content if only they are allowed to treat as inferiors the Mahometans of the island; and they are not certain that the Government of Athens would leave them as completely to themselves as the lax and careless rulers to whom they now pay a nominal allegiance. In the event of a war which may perhaps spread over the Levant, the Cretans, if they succeed in conquering the Mahometan population of the island, will necessarily ally themselves with Greece; and on the conclusion of peace they may find it prudent to submit to annexation; but there is no reason to suppose that they are at present anxious for the change. Their civilization is perhaps more backward than that of the Greek kingdom, but they share the commercial and maritime tastes which have raised their countrymen to prosperity in all parts of Europe. The cession of the Ionian Islands to Greece proved, as might have been expected, disadvantageous, at least in the first instance, to the population which was ostensibly liberated from foreign supremacy. The Cretans would certainly lose nothing by severance of their slight connexion with Turkey, and they might perhaps ultimately form part of a considerable

and flourishing State. It is evident that their fortunes could furnish no consolation to Greeks of Thessaly or Epirus for the continuance of their subjection to Turkish rule.

While the SULTAN'S Ministers persist in haggling for doubtful advantages, the danger of war becomes every day more imminent. The Greeks cannot afford a prolongation of doubtful peace, and the Turks have taken advantage of the delay to improve their preparations for defence. The season is now favourable to military operations, and a decision can scarcely be postponed beyond the end of March. It cannot be denied that irresistible force, combined with helpless acquiescence in the course of events, presents an unsatisfactory and undignified spectacle. The Powers, if they were only united in policy and in action, might command where they vainly entreat; but reciprocal jealousies and conflicting wishes leave them at the mourt of two such Covernments. leave them at the mercy of two such Governments as those of Turkey and Greece. The concert of Europe on which Mr. GLADSTONE has often relied would fully justify his confidence if only it happened to exist. In present circumstances his Government has been forced to content itself with a verbal or Platonic co-operation which is fully understood or despised by the principals in the quarrel. The English Government have from the first been consistent in a policy which has proved to be impracticable. French policy, on the other hand, has veered into an opposite quarter since the beginning of the negotiations. Germany and Austria have probably never varied in the intentions which Mr. GLADSTONE and Lord GRANVILLE ought to have Germany in the first instance ascertained and taken into considera-It would have been right to coerce Turkey by the united determination of Europe; and in the presence of insuperable differences of opinion and of policy, it would have been judicious to restrain the warlike propensities of Greece. The present condition of affairs, unless the negotiations should in spite of probability succeed, is not creditable to European statesmanship; but it is a hard and an unprofitable task to distribute the responsibility among the several Governments. It was assuredly not the business of England to make war on Turkey either alone or in concert with Russia. If implied threats have not been carried into execution, the error was not in final inaction, but in premature menace. It seems that the Turkish Ministers have, with characteristic obtuseness, taken the present occasion to inflict on the Governments of Bulgaria and East Roumelia affronts or slights which, though of little intrinsic importance, might serve as pretexts for a quarrel. The neighbouring provinces will not move without the permission of Russia, but it is possible that the Slavs may be let loose at the time of the Greek invasion of Turkey. If a general struggle begins, it will be difficult for Austria to abstain from an intervention which might produce grave results.

### AGRICULTURAL DISTRESS.

THE evidence collected by the Duke of RICHMOND'S Commission forms a very large but a very interesting volume. The witnesses were, for the most part, well chosen, knew the business of farming and the condition of agriculture thoroughly, and said what they had to say in a direct and intelligent way. The questions put to them were generally pertinent, and had the effect of making them state what they knew, and think out their thoughts.
What have been the causes and extent of agricultural distress? whether legislation can do anything to help the agricultural interest? and what is the probable future of English agriculture? were the three prominent enquiries to which the Commissioners had to address themselves. The information they sought was principally obtained from those who were conversant with the districts where the distress has been greatest, and what is chiefly remarkable in the testimony given is the unanimity with which the most competent observers pronounced that the distress was in the main attributable to the weather. Some portion must be attributed to defective systems of cultivation, and another portion to foreign competition, but these portions are altogether insignificant as compared to the mass of distress caused by four wet seasons, of which the fourth was the wettest. It is most important to bear this in mind. On land where the soil is of a kind to be much injured by rain, English agriculture in a period of long-continued soaking rain broke down. English land laws may be bad or good,

the English system of tenure may be bad or good, American competition may be dangerous, or not so very dangerous after all, but what has caused seven-tenths of the present distress is not bad land laws or a bad system of tenure, but excessive rain. This definite calculation of seven-tenths is to be found in the evidence of Mr. Huskinson, a land-agent, landowner, and farmer in Notting-hamshire, one of the counties which notoriously has been one of the chief scenes of recent distress. had taken much pains to justify the conclusion at which he arrived. He has 500 acres under cultivation. and during the four wet years he had an annual loss of 600l. In quantity and quality his wheat and barley were short to that amount. After deducting what he lost through the price of his produce being lowered by foreign competition, he estimated the loss caused by the weather at seven-tenths of his whole loss. Other witnesses who had not gone into so accurate a calculation found even greater fault with the weather. They all agreed that the farmers in the districts of which they were speaking had little grain to take to market; that this little was bad in one little that the cattle world not not on the little was bad in quality; that the cattle would not put on flesh; and that the rain did it all, or almost all. Rents had previously gone up; but during the bad time there was a general abatement of rent. Rates had gone up; but the witnesses abatement of rent. Kates had gone up; but the witnesses were fully aware that in the long run rates fall on the landlord. The losses, too, of the cultivator were so enormous that rents and rates hardly entered into his calculation.

An Essex farmer stated that on a farm of 500 acres he lost 1,500l. in 1879, and 1,250l. in 1878. The price of meat was high, but the cattle could not thrive in such constant wet. The price of the labourer has a state of the land. such constant wet. The pay of the labourer has advanced, and he now gets an average of a pound a week in many parts of the country; but the total cost of labour to the cultivator has not increased, as the use of machinery makes the employment of fewer hands necessary. There remained no other great cause of distress but the weather, and the weather was in the opinion of these experts bad enough to account for anything.

It must, of course, be understood that the witnesses did not say that even if the sun shone as brightly and as continuously as it ever shines in England, there might not be a point at which foreign competition would cause agricultural distress. All they said was that in the particular instance of distress under consideration the primary cause of suffering had been rain and not competition. If American competition brought down wheat to 40s. a quarter and beef to sixpence a pound, then they allowed that the sun could not save the farmer. Whether American competition is likely to have so much of success they, for the most part, forbore to speculate. So far as they ventured to give an opinion they evidently leant to the view that, with a decent amount of sunshine, the British farmer would, after a time and under certain conditions, be able to get a fair living. Time as well as sunshine must come to his aid.

The bad effects of rain do not cease when the rain stops.

The land is sour, and the character of pasture is deteriorated. There is an enemy of farmers known as blue or razor grass which stifles good grass in wet times, and one witness, when asked whether it had not made its appearance, replied that it had not only made its appearance, but had put everything else on one side. But much more serious than this state of the land is the loss of the farmers' capital. During the wet weather the farmers lost and lost, the banks got frightened, lessened their accommodation, called in their advances, and the farmers were cleaned out. There are exceptions to everything, and some farmers, no doubt, have started with ample capital, but witnesses acquainted with large tracts of country agreed that farmers, as a rule, begin with no more than 4l. an acre. Very often this modicum is diminished by the payment of heavy compensation to the outgoing tenant; but, apart from this, many farmers have lost during the four wet years an average of 1l. per acre, so that they must have got to the end of their capital. To find new persons who are willing to embark fresh capital in what has just been shown to be a losing business is a difficult thing; and banks that have saved themselves, or very often have not saved themselves, by calling in their advances will be shy of running new risks. And the difficulty of finding new farmers with new capital, which must have been felt even if sunshine would put things right again, is much enhanced by the farmer having now to farm under new conditions. He must be, if he is to succeed, a different sort of man, and he must work in a different way.

Before, however, the farmer can get a fair start he must have a good landlord. By a good landlord, as a very in-telligent witness observed, must be understood a landlord who contributes his proper share towards getting the greatest possible amount of produce out of the land. The greatest possible amount of produce out of the land. The worst landlord, if these witnesses are to be trusted, that a farmer can have is himself; the best is a great proprietor. Peasant proprietorship, so far as present experience goes, does not answer in England. There is more of it than is commonly supposed. There are many small farmers in Lincolphilm. In one digital proposed of the proposed o Lincolnshire. In one division there were a few years ago 3,000 owners of less than 30 acres. They are, said a Lincolnshire witness, a hard-working and hard-living class, but are entirely dependent on good seasons, and in bad times die rapidly away. Great proprietors are the best landlords, not only because they can afford not to press the tenant in bad times, but because they can put proper buildings on the land, and still more because they can keep experienced resident agents who see that what is done by the landlord is done properly. Nothing is more sad in the volume than the experience offered by one witness after another that an almost endless amount of money has been wasted in draining, because landlords have not been willing, or have not been able, to afford the expense of an agent competent to see that the drainage has been properly carried out. Where such agents cannot be afforded, landlordism will become a business which young proprietors, present or future, will have to learn, and Sir Baldwin Leighton was so penetrated with this truth that he proposed to Commission that the surplus revenues of Oxford and Cambridge, instead of being wasted on useless professorships, should be devoted to the technical education of the coming landowners of England. When a farmer has got a good landlord he must show himself a good has got a good landlord he must show himself a good farmer. As a rule, if these experienced witnesses are to be trusted, English farming has not been good in recent years. The tendency, as one of them said, of farmers within the last few years has been to take as little trouble as they can and got as large a return as they can for it. This will not do in the future. What is wanted is that the farmer shall be more alive than he has been. He must go into his business as other traders go into their businesses. He must think of one thing and of one only—what it will pay him to produce and what it will not. He must be inventive and ready to turn his hand to anything. The keeping of and ready to turn his hand to anything. The keeping of poultry is very anxious and troublesome work, but he must keep poultry. Market-gardening requires some skill and involves some risk, but he must do his bit of market-gardening with a confident and light heart. If he goes in for milk, he must calculate to a nicety whether it will pay him best to contribute to the winter or the summer supply. He must be a better byer than he is now, and not waste his money on the wrong sort of cattle or on adulterated manures. Probably in the course of time such a race of farmers may grow up, but at present a diffident man may hesitate as to whether he is really the kind of paragon who is qualified to put his money into this difficult, venturesome, and lately unsuccessful business. But, fortunately, most men, especially if they have a little wholesome ignorance of affairs, entertain such a good opinion of themselves that, if the sun will but give a proper amount of encouragement, there may be before long an adequate supply of farmers who have much courage and some little money, and who will persuade themselves to think of the four wet years as of an evil dream.

#### M. GRÊVY AND HIS CABINET.

RENCH politicians are certainly to be complimented on the ingenuity with which they manufacture new varieties of crisis. The discussions which have been going on in the Cabinet during the past week, and the result which has finally been reached, are of an entirely original type. The Bill for substituting the Scrutin de liste for the Scrutin d'arrondissement has been under consideration by the Committee to which in the French Chambers all Bills are referred as a matter of course. One of the forms which this Committee has to observe is the examination of a Minister with a view of ascertaining the view of the Government on the proposed legislation, and the Cabinet had accordingly to decide what should be said in its name

with regard to the change in the size of the constitu-As soon as the subject was thus brought formally before them, it appeared that, as occasionally happens with a jury, there was not the slightest chance of their coming to an agreement. M. Ferry prefers the Scrutin d'arrondissement, M. Constans prefers the Scrutin de liste, and the other Ministers range themselves under one or other of these leaders. There can be no doubt as to the importance of the question whichever happens to be the view taken of it. Even from a strictly party standpoint, there is a unanimous belief that it will have very grave results, though alike among Republicans and reactionists the most opposite opinions are held as to what these results will be. Consequently it seemed almost necessary that the Cabinet should make ap its mind one way or the other. What is the use of a Government which has no collective opinion on a measure which everybody is agreed will effect a very great change in the composition of the only one of the public powers which is directly elected by universal suffrage? In the first instance, M. Ferry seems to have had no answer to give to this inquiry, and M. GRÉVY is understood not to see an answer to it yet. But, then, the process of arriving at a collective opinion was not a pleasant one. If M. Grévy had himself been in favour of the Scrutin de liste, all would have gone smoothly. He would then have been in agreement with M. Gambetta, and when this is secured nothing else is of much moment. But M. Greev is strongly opposed to the Scrutin de liste, and he was not at all inclined to dismiss the Ministers who took the same view as himself, in order to fill their places by Ministers who take the same view as M. GAMBETTA.

There was another course open to him had he chosen to adopt it. Under the Constitution the President has the power of appointing and dismissing his Ministers, though, as in other constitutional countries, he has to exercise this power in deference to the declared wishes of the Chamber of Deputies. But in this case the Chamber of Deputies has not made known its wishes. No one can positively say beforehand whether those wishes, when they come to be expressed in a vote, will be in favour of the Scrutin de liste or the Scrutin d'arrondissement. Therefore the President of the Re-PUBLIC was at liberty to say that it was necessary to re-construct the Cabinet in one sense or the other, and construct the Cabinet in one sense or the other, and that, in the absence of any guidance from the Chamber, he intended to reconstruct it in the sense with which he himself agreed. Nor is it at all obvious what harm could have come of his so doing. M. Constans and those who think with him would have resigned their offices, and M. Ferry would have met the Chamber at the head of a homogeneous Cabinet. If he had succeeded in defeating M. Bardoux's Bill, the approaching general election would have determined whether upon this point the existing Chamber represents the country. If M. Bardoux's Bill had been carried against the Cabinet, M. Ferry and his colleagues would have made way for Ministers more in accord with the mind of the deputies. Instead of this, long and fierce discussions seem to have been held, not on the question which side the Cabinet should take, but on the question whether it was necessary for the Cabinet to take any side at all. Strange to say, this question has been answered in the negative. The Cabinet have come to a compromise, and have agreed to remain silent during the debate. What makes this decision the more remarkable is that it has apparently been come to against the will of M. Grevy. The President of the REPUBLIC so far condescends to the ideas of common men that he keeps a newspaper. In France almost every politician has an organ of his own, and M. Grevy may not have chosen to be less well equipped than his neighbours. The objection to the plan is that it shows the serene and irresponsible President to be a man of like passions with his stormtossed and responsible Ministers. It is evidently not at all tossed and responsible Ministers. It is evidently not at all the same thing to M. Grévy whether his ideas or M. Gamera's upon the relative merits of the two Scrutins are adopted. Within certain well-defined limits he had every right to give effect to his own ideas rather than to M. Gamera's. It rested with him to choose whether the Scrutin de lists should be presented to the Chamber with the seal of Capital secretaries of the contract of the the seal of Cabinet acceptance or with the stamp of Cabinet disapproval. It is not likely that M. FERRY would have rejected a commission to form a Ministry on the basis of opposition to the Scrutin de liste; but, if he had been unwilling to run the risk, M. Grevy might easily have found some

one else who was willing to take his place. Or, if this was too bold a course for M. Grevy to decide upon, there was another alternative open to him. There is no doubt that the President of the Republic, so long as the Constitution remains unchanged in title and spirit, must in the end take Ministers from the Chamber, and not seek to impose Ministers on it; and M. Grevy might, if he liked, have dismissed M. Ferry, and commissioned M. Constans to form a Cabinet on the basis of opposition to the Scrutin d'arrondissement. The President would then have done at first what he will have to do at last; and the Chamber would have been saved from the danger which now awaits it, of approaching a subject of great moment and great difficulty without any authorized guidance.

and great difficulty without any authorized guidance.

Supposing that neither of these alternatives recommended themselves to M. Gravy, a third remained. He might have tolerated the ridiculous compromise to which Ministers have given their consent, and have taken pains not to let it be seen that he either cared what opinion they had or wanted them to have any. Instead of this M. Grevy has done the exact opposite. The newspaper Instead of this, which is understood to represent his views has been which is understood to represent his views has been quite unable to leave the subject alone. It has returned to it again and again, and always in the same strain of contemptuous exclusion of the possibility of a persistent maintenance of neutrality on the part of the Cabinet. Unless there are reasons for what he has done which are not apparent on the surface, M. Grévy has simply courted defeat. The Constitution puts him beyond the reach of party conflicts, though in the present instance he had accidentally a right to take part in them. What he has done is to show quite plainly that he wishes to take his share in this particular controversy, but that he has allowed himself to be shut out from it by Ministers whom he has the power of dismissing. There were abundant reasons why M. Grévy should have resisted the temptation to descend into the arena of political strife, but none why he should remain outside it and yet allow the journal which he is understood to inspire to lament that he has been unable to persuade M. FERRY to descend into it with After the remarkable exhibition which it has pleased the friends of the Scrutin d'arrondissement to make of themselves, it is hardly likely that the Chamber of Deputies will display much enthusiasm in defence of it. M. GRÉVY may have many virtues, but he is not a match for M. GAMBETTA.

#### MEXICO.

CENERAL GRANT, it is announced, has given up the presidency of the World's Fair Commission, partly because he finds that no one takes any interest in the World's Fair, and partly because he is going to Mexico. No one at present wants another huge Exhibition, and flagging interest in such an enterprise cannot be applied to the provider of the presidence of the pr be whipped up by calling a huge Exhibition a World's Fair or by putting General Grant at its head. Experience has shown that very big Exhibitions can only come off with success if a considerable interval of time elapses between one period of large shows and another. Philadelphia and Paris have used up for the present such sensations of delight as World's Fairs can give. It is now the period for comparative repose, and for little countries to have little shows. Spain proposes to take the lead in these minor spectacles, and to have next year an Exhibition at Madrid. She has quite as good a title as any other country of the second rank to send out her modest invitations to the world. She can offer travellers a country worth travelling in, she has a capital where works of art of the first class are to be seen, and she has special products of her own which show very high perfection of workmanship. Her only drawback is that at the time of year when alone most people have leisure to go to an Exhibition her climate will bake her guests until they will wish they were anywhere out of the sun. Those, however, who can stand being baked will the sun. Those, however, who can stand being baked will have an opportunity of observing how much and how little there is of real progress in Spain. There is now a settled Government; there is a beginning of activity; there is a disposition, which used not to exist, to deal with foreigners. On the other hand, Spain is still very backward, and her backwardness is due partly to the character of the people and partly to its social condition. And what is true of Spain is true of Spanish colonies. Spain is at the head of the Spanish world, and all the

Spanish world resembles Spain. General Grant gives up an American Exhibition and goes to Mexico. Others, released from the terrors of a new American Exhibition, are invited to go to Spain. All will do what is really the same thing. They will got away from the atmosphere of the most go-ahead of modern societies to the atmosphere of societies which are just beginning to go ahead after their own peculiar fashion. What is happening in Spain is happening in Mexico. What may be expected of Spain may be expected, although in a less degree, of Mexico. What cannot be expected of Spain can still less be expected of Mexico; for Mexico is not only a colony, and a colony is as a rule inferior to the home country, but it is a ruined colony. It is a second-rate Spain which has allowed itself to tumble into ruins, and is only very slowly and partially beginning to get out of its ruined state. A Mexican town is generally a collection of hovels, which show where the Spaniards have been. And the aspect of the towns reflects the condition of the country. Mexico has to be re-made, and even if it could be re-made it would be, at the best, what Spain was thirty years ago, and would have to tread the difficult path of gradual progress to be, in time, what

Spain is now. A little more than a year ago General GRANT paid his first visit to Mexico. He was then a very great man for Mexico to welcome, and Mexico treated him as a very great He had been received in Europe on a footing a equal to that of royalty, partly because he had been twice President of the United States, and partly because he was the conqueror of the South. When he got to Mexico, he had not only this flavour of royalty about him, but his greatness was expected to continue and increase, and he was looked on as the coming President for a third term of office. While in Mexico he did much to stimulate the interest of Americans in Mexico as a field of enterprise, and the disposition of Mexicans to think that American money was worth having, even at the risk of some amount of political danger. During the past year American money has flown freely into Mexico, and the flow of much more has been promised. General Grant goes back with the prestige of having done something to promote this flow, but without the prestige of a coming Presidency. He has not been re-elected, and in the United States men who have been prominent and have ceased to be so are soon forgotten. The political influence of General Grant is now probably very small, if he can be said to have any. He returns as connected with the flow of money, and not as in any way representing the authority of the United States. And the flow of money into Mexico must be pronounced wise or unwise entirely on its own merits. It will either answer to pour capital into Mexico or it will not. Time alone can show the prudence or imprudence of American schemes for developing the resources of American schemes for developing the resources of Mexico, but there can be no doubt at all as to their vastness. Nor are they mere paper schemes. They are schemes for which a considerable amount of money has been subscribed and on which work is actually being done. Of these schemes there are two that may be called comparatively small and two that are very large indeed. The two smaller schemes are a railway from the American border to the port of Guaymas, and a railway across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec. The first supplies a real want. It gives a fairly good port much to the south of San Francisco to a system of American railways which at present have no outlet in the Pacific except San Francisco. The second is the Panama railway over again, except that on the one hand it is longer, while on the other hand it is very much to the northward, and offers a route at least two thousand miles shorter to San Francisco than the Panama route. If, however, the Panama railway is destined to be killed by M. DE LESSEPS'S canal, a Tehuantepec railway could scarcely hope to escape a similar fate. To save it from its too probable destiny Captain Eds, who has gained fame by his very successful and ingenious work in opening the mouth of the Mississippi, proposes to revive an idea not unfamiliar to Honduras bondholders, and to transport ships bodily across the Tehuantepec Isthmus. It is a magnificent idea, and one that most people would be glad to see other people subscribing to test practically. Captain Edg hoped to get assistance from the United States Government, and obtained a report from a Committee in his favour, but his hopes were dashed when a vote was taken. The larger schemes are two systems of railway from the city of Mexico to the American border, one with the gauge of our English railways and the other with a

metre gauge, each being connected when it gets to the border with American systems of its own gauge. The line with the broader gauge, which is known as the Central Railway, has a distance of about twelve hundred miles to traverse in order to reach the border. For a third of the distance its course takes it to towns which for Mexico are populous and thriving, and to districts which for Mexico are naturally rich. It then goes off into the wild. The narrow-gauge line would have a distance of about a thousand miles to traverse to get to the border; but it may, if it pleases, abridge the distance by using its rival for a part of the way. Both schemes are in the hands of influential Americans. Both have real money behind them, both have the promises of handsome subventions from the Mexican Government, and both have authority to branch off in a vague way and go to some undetermined port on the Pacific. In addition, the Central Railway proposes to make a connexion between San Luis Potosi and the port of Tampico to the north of Vera Cruz, which would greatly abridge the distance between the sea and the interior of Mexico, and divert in a corresponding degree the traffic that now goes to the interior by Vera Cruz and the city of Mexico.

These railways have their drawbacks. Purely Mexican traffic is shown by experience to be of a small volume. It grows, but it starts from a very humble beginning, and it grows as slowly as everything must grow in a ruined Spanish colony. The social condition of Mexico puts, and must long put, a bar to everything like rapid progress, the land being held for the most part in large tracts by absentee proprietors, who cultivate it most imperfectly, and have neither the money nor the wish for improvements. The second drawback of these railways is improvements. The second drawback of these railways is that they go for a long part of their course over a barren and almost uninhabited plateau. The third drawback is that, although they are promised handsome subventions by the Government, it is at present impossible for the Government to pay them. It has not got, and cannot get, the money to make good its promises. In order to meet these three drawbacks, it has been proposed that tracts of land on each side of the line shall be given to the railways. land on each side of the line shall be given to the railways, and that this way of getting railways made, which has been successfully adopted in the United States, shall be employed in Mexico. These tracts of land will, it is supposed, be occupied by American settlers. There will then be a traffic other than a purely Mexican traffic; the lines will go not through a desert, but through the homes of thriving immigrants. The Government will give land which it has got instead of money which it has not got. The scheme, if it could be carried out, would be in a merely financial point of view of great advantage to Mexico; but there are many serious practical difficulties in the way of carrying it out. The Government, where the land is decently good, has not got land to give. The land that is worth having is in the hands of private proland that is worth having is in the hands of private proprietors who would have to be bought out. And, taken as a whole, the land is not at all good. It is not like the rich plains of the Mississippi and its tributaries, of which newcomers were enabled by railways to utilize the natural wealth. It has been explored centuries ago by the Spaniards, and has been left barren because the Spaniards decided that it would not pay to work it. Politically, if the scheme were carried out, the occupation by Americans of the land on each side of the chief means of communication would give the United States a dominating influence which would almost amount to annexation. But this would only happen when the scheme was carried out. While it was being carried out the settlers would have to cultivate their sterile holdings in the midst of a jealous, hostile, and, for a great part, lawless population; they would be under foreign laws; lawless population; they would be under foreign laws; and, so far as they were protected, they would have to appeal for protection to a scanty foreign army. There seems no very clear reason why enterprising Ameriappeal for protection to a scanty toreign army. There seems no very clear reason why enterprising Americans should migrate to bad land when they can migrate to good land; why they should come under laws which they do not understand, instead of remaining under laws which they do understand; or why they should trust to Mexican warriors to keep off enemies whom they have created for themselves. No doubt all these difficulties may be everyone in some way that is not now discoverable. be overcome in some way that is not now discoverable; but the question for the moment is whether they really exist or not, and whether, if they do exist, General Gram, or any one else, can overcome them.

#### MR. CHAPLIN'S MOTION.

THE debate on Mr. Chaplin's Resolution was needlessly L confused by Mr. Mundella's desire to convict the mover of inconsistency. Mr. Chaplin spoke in high praise of the Act of 1878, and Mr. Mundella tried to show that this view was incompatible with a wish to substitute total prohibition of the landing of live animals for compulsory slaughter at the port of landing. The answer to this is obvious. Mr. Chaplin admires the Act of 1878 because it went a long way in the direction of prohibition. But he would have admired it still more if it had gone all the way, and he now proposes that, in view of recent facts, it should be made to go all the way. There is no real inconsistency between the two positions. The man who admits that half a loaf is better than no bread is not debarred from contending that the whole loaf would be better than the half, and that something which has happened since the half loaf was conceded has proved that the whole ought now to be given. Mr. MUNDELLA would have done better to argue, as was done by another speaker, that the Act of 1878 was a compromise, and that those who seek to disturb a compromise must not wonder if the effect of their effort is to reopen the whole question. It would hardly be to the advantage of cattle-producers that the policy assented to by the last Parliament should be reviewed by the present. In this sense the Government may be said to have befriended the farmer by meeting Mr. CHAPLIN'S motion with a direct negative.

The facts of the recent outbreak of foot-and-mouth disease were not disputed by Mr. Mundella, and though Mr. Chambeelain preferred to speak of Mr. Chaplin's "assumptions," he made no serious attempt to set up a counter theory. At the beginning of last September the foot-and-mouth disease scarcely existed in this country. In the course of that month it broke out in the North of France, and shortly afterwards a cargo of live beasts coming from the infected district, and suffering severely from the disease, was landed at Deptford. They were clarected at the port of landing, but within three slanghtered at the port of landing, but within three days the disease made its appearance in the London dairies, where it had been absolutely unknown for nine months. It is maintained by Mr. Chaplin, and not denied by Mr. Musdella, that it was almost certainly conveyed from Deptford to London by some of the drovers employed about the diseased beasts. Upon the case as thus stated Mr. CHAPLIN founds his prayer, that in future live cattle should not be imported from countries as to whose freedom from disease the Privy Council are not satisfied. Very little was said in the debate upon a point which to those who are not experts seems of considerable importance. What guarantee is there that, if the importation of live animals from infected countries were forbidden, the exclusion of the disease would be complete? If it could only be communicated from one animal to another, the question would answer itself; but disease which can equally be conveyed by human beings may presumably lurk even in dead carcases, and from thence be communicated by those who handle them to living cattle. On Tuesday Mr. Carpin was all for the importation of dead meat. If he had been chairman of an Australian Meat Preserving Company, or the patentee of a new freezing process, he could not have shown more enthusiasm in the cause. But, if the exclusion of live cattle is not a specific against the introduction of the foot-and-mouth disease—and so far no one appears to have said that it is—he might be equally ardent the year after such exclusion in favour of the exclusion of dead meat. In that case consumers would no doubt be saved from the rise in price which may conceivably accompany any serious destruction of English cattle; but they would be saved from it at the cost of the entire extinction of foreign competition. It would not be wonderful if, like David, they preferred the pestilence to being thus delivered into the hands of their natural enemies. According to Mr. MUNDELLA, the value of the living animals imported into the United Kingdom in 1879 was 7,000,000l., while in 1880 it rose to 10,000,000l. That is a very rapid increase, and, as it is accompanied by a great improvement in the quality of the cattle sent, it seems to show that the conditions of the English meat supply are undergoing a remarkable change. As we have often pointed out, the whole question of restriction of importation turns in the end upon one point. Will the meat consumer gain more by the exclusion of disease than he will lose by the exclusion of meat? If foreign meat formed merely a

fraction of the total supply, and if there were no reason to suppose that this proportion would be materially in-creased, the argument for whatever measure of prohibition that seemed necessary to keep out disease would be unanswerable. It would be poor comfort to the consumer who found 95 per cent. of his meat supply disappearing by disease to hear that no restriction would be placed on the import of the remaining five per cent. The rapid increase of importation deprives this reasoning of much of its value. If the importation of foreign cattle is playing every year a larger part in the mechanism by which the food supply of the country is regulated, it would be exceedingly rash to interfere with it to an extent which might permanently divert it from our shores. It would be bad policy to sacrifice the next generation of consumers to the the present generation, and a measure of prohibition which left us nothing but the trade in dead meat to look to as the alternative to our own herds might in the end have this result. The Legislature has to guard against two coequal dangers. On the one hand, there is the risk that the homegrown meat, which at present forms by far the larger part of our supply, may be lessened in quantity, and consequently raised in price, by the importation of disease from abroad. On the other hand, there is the risk that the foreign trade, which, in virtue of its unascertained capacity of development, may eventually give us the larger part of our meat supply, may be hampered by injudicious restrictions. The only means by which these alternative evils can be escaped is by steering a middle course between them, and the com-promise which Mr. Chaplin seeks to upset does on the whole provide us with this middle course. Slaughter at the port of landing is not a universal and infallible remedy against the importation of disease, but it makes the danger very much less. When the Act of 1878 was under discussion, it was contended that even this amount of interference with importation would be extremely injurious to the foreign cattle trade. The experiment has been tried, and it has been found that compulsory slaughter has not prevented a very large increase in the value of the cattle imported. Mr. Chaplin would have us carry the experiment further in the hope that it will again be successful. But the conditions under which it would be tried would be widely different. It has been found that restriction on the importation of live cattle has had the effect of increasing the trade in them. Mr. Chaplin asks Parliament to prohibit the importation of cattle from infected countries, in the hope that the consequent growth of the trade in dead meat would fill up the gap. It is possible that the advance of scientific discovery may some day originate a method of preserving dead meat which shall make us independent of the importation of cattle. But until that day comes Parliament cannot in the interest of the consumer consent to a measure of entire prohibition which might conceivably have to be applied to all countries at once.

Fortunately it has not been shown that the facts as stated by Mr. Chaplin require such stringent treatment. The ground of his argument is that the disease which is brought to the port of landing by cattle may be carried inland by the human beings who have to tend them, even though the cattle themselves are not allowed to leave the market alive. It appears from Mr. Mundella's speech that several important precautions which the Privy Council has now ordered to be taken were not in use in September It is certainly possible to ensure that no one who has been in the neighbourhood of diseased cattle should be allowed to leave the market until his person and clothes have been properly disinfected. At the worst, it costs less to keep drovers in quarantine than to exclude foreign cattle from the English market. What has been done successfully in the diseases of human beings can hardly be beyond reach in the diseases of animals.

#### THE BISHOPS' BIBLE.

IN describing some of the earlier editions of the Bishops' Bible L we had occasion to notice the remarkable variations in the Old Testament of 1569, as compared with that of the first edition of 1568, and we called attention to the fact, hitherto unnoticed either 1508, and we cannot attention to the fact, intherro unnonced either by critics or bibliographers, of the recurrence in the second folio of 1572 to all, or nearly all, the inferior readings of the first edition. The only account of this singular anomaly that we can suggest is the following. We suppose that the second folio was printed as far as the end of the Old Testament before the 4to, of 1569 was published, that certain critics had called attention to the numerous errors of a serious kind, as well as minor blemishes, which disfigure the first edition almost as soon as it was published, and that a thorough revision was immediately made of the historical books of the Old Testament, the results of which appear in the alteration of several hundred passages in the smaller-sized volume issued in the following year. As these were adopted in subsequent editions of both sizes, it is plain that some accident must have prevented their being incorporated in the second large folio of 1572, intended for use in churches. Little or no exception seems to have been taken to the renderings of the New Testament, for these are very little altered in the 4to. of 1569; but when we for these are very little altered in the 4to of 1569; but when we come to compare the two large folios of 1568 and 1572, the differences in the New Testament are very striking. They may be come to compare the two large folios of 1568 and 1572, the differences in the New Testament are very striking. They may be counted by hundreds, some changes having been made in every book, and we believe we may say in every chapter, though we do not profess to have examined them so minutely as definitely to assert this as a fact. With regard to these alterations, which certainly are for the most part improvements, and were adopted in subsequent issues of the book, we have something more than conjecture to guide us. Strype, in his Life of Archbishop Parker, has given us a list of several corrections supplied by a Greek scholar of the day named Laurence, of whom little is known, but who at least was a far better scholar than any of the bishops employed upon this part of the work. It may be that Parker had asked him for criticisms on his own portion of the work, which conupon this part of the work. It may be that Parier had assed him for criticisms on his own portion of the work, which con-sisted, as far as the Gospels and Acts are concerned, of the first two Gospels, and that Laurence travelled a little beyond his brief and introduced two or three additional remarks on passages which he had casually noticed in the rest of the volume. It is quite incredible that so good a scholar would not have found many more equally astounding blunders in other books if he had critically examined them. In point of fact, some one must have done so, for the changes made in accordance with Laurence's criticism do not amount to one hundredth of the whole number of those that more made in the new edition of the New Testament in 1572. So much misapprehension has prevailed as regards these notes that we will say at once that it is certain Laurence was referring to the first edition of the Bishops' Bible and to no other; and that all his suggestions were adopted in the second folio edition of 1572. without a thought apparently having been given to what he re meant, while in one case at least a most absurd blunder was n meant, while in one case at least a most absurd blunder was made in attempting to introduce the correction proposed by him. It occurs in the 21st chapter of St. Matthew, v. 38, where kara-oxiouev had been rendered somewhat freely Let us enjoy. Laurence objected to this translation, remarking that the word meant "Let us take possession or seizin." The editor of this second folio edition, not understanding that the word "seizin" is a substantive governed by the word take, made a verb of it, and altered it into season, and printed the clause "Let us season upon his in-britance," and in this form the verse appears in every subsequent edition of the Bishops' Bible that we have seen from 1572 to 1602 inclusive. We cannot speak of the edition of 1606, as we have never seen it, and we believe that there is only one copy in existence. We have hitherto spoken principally of the changes introduced

into the second and third editions of this Bishops Bible, and that with the special object of showing how carelessly the whole affair was designed and executed. We ought perhaps to have observed in our preceding article that the first edition of this Bible was so in our preceding article that the first edition of this Bible was so carelessly set up that it seems to have been corrected after some of the sheets had been struck off. We have observed at least thirty leaves in which there are variations, and yet it is otherwise certain that there was only one edition of the date 1568. Under the circumstances, it was scarcely likely that, even after all the improvements in the Old Testament in the second edition and of the New Testament in the third, that a tolerable translation of the Bible should have been produced. But any criticism that would be fair and just must be made upon some edition subsequent to 1572. Probably the fairest test to take, except for the Psalms, would be that of 1602, which there is very good evidence to show in the edition used by the compilers of the Authorized Version in is the edition used by the compilers of the Authorized Version in the comparison of the existing translations which they made with a view to rendering their own version as perfect as possible. We believe, however, that this edition does not differ from the folio of 1585, which bears on its first title "Authorized and appointed to be read in Churches," and on the title of the New Testament "Perused and diligently corrected," except as regards the version of the Psalms, which in this edition alone of all those subsequent to 1572 contains the Bishops' version. Another specimen of carelass additing is shown; in this edition in that it notices the neglect of the Psalms, which in this edition alone of all those subsequent to 1572 contains the Bishops' version. Another specimen of careless editing is shown in this edition in that it notices the psalms appointed for morning and evening prayer respectively without making any allusion to the day of the month to which they belong. Setting aside, then, any consideration of the corrections made of serious mistakes, as well as of inferior renderings of words and serious which cannot be estimated at much less than four thousand phrases, which cannot be estimated at much less than four thousand in the New Testament alone, it must still be pronounced a very poor production. The scholarship of its translators was far inferior to that of their predecessors who laboured at the Genevan Bible, and as regards command of the English language it is decidedly inferior both to the Genevan and to that which is commonly called The Great Bible of 1539. Dr. Westcott seems to have been unwilling to prosecute his inquiries in the Old Testament part for fear of what he might discover to the disparagement of the scholarship and learning of the translators; whilst Dr. Eadie hrases, which cannot be estimated at much less than four thousand

has criticized several passages both of the Old and the New Testament with considerable leniency. He has not, for instance, noticed that sometimes in the Old Testament the version is utterly unintelligible. We quote a single instance of this. The 11th verse of the 12th chapter of Ecclesiastes is thus rendered:—

For the wordes of the wyse are like prickes and nayles that go horowe, of the auctoures of gatheringes [which] are geven of one shep-earde.

But when Dr. Eadie speaks of the Bishops' version as being more stately than precise, he is scarcely happy, we think, in his illustration when he selects 2 Cor. ix. 5 as an instance:—

Prepare your prepromised beneficence, that it might be ready as a beneficence and not as an extortion.

Another instance of absurdity, in this case apparently the result of mere ignorance, occurs in Hosea ix. 11:—

Ephraim their glorie shall flee away like a birde: for birth, for wombe

It is, however, due to the translators to say that this was altered in 1569, though the same mistake was reproduced in 1572. We could give many more instances to show that the bishops of Elizabeth's time had but a faint perception of that single step which is said to distinguish the sublime from the ridiculous; but we must utilize the space that remains to us in giving some account of the

notes which have been added to this translation.

These are few in number, and such as there are are strikingly contrasted with the business-like tone of those of the Genevan Bible. The instructions given to the translators were "To make no bitter notes upon any text, or yet to set down any determina-tion in places of controversy." And to this they strictly adhered, with the one exception of a few most ridiculous side blows at the Pope and the doctrine of the Mass. The doctrine of the Trinity Pope and the doctrine of the Mass. The doctrine of the Trinity was not considered to be in controversy, and so attention is sometimes called to the texts adduced in proof of that doctrine. Neither was it considered an open question that sacraments are nothing more than seals of a grace previously bestowed; and, though the translators left out many of the more strongly expressed Calvinistic notes of the Genevan, yet some suggesting the same doctrine were retained, and others implying it were added. This is most remarkable in the Acts, done by Cox, Bishop of Ely, who, in Queen Mary's reign, had been living among the exiles in Germany. He is especially careful in the nineteenth chapter to explain away the doctrine of baptismal grace in three different notes, much after the fashion of the notes in Tyndale's Testament of 1550 and the Genevan Bible; and this not in the way of controversy, but as if it were, as it really was, the received doctrine of the Church of England at that time. The Calvinistic doctrines of election and reprobation are also stated by this writer in a note to Rom ix. These perhaps are the passages where controversial notes are most apparent. In the rest of the Bible the character of the notes is puerile and trivial in the extreme. There is no evidence to show apparent. In the rest of the Bible the character of the house is puerile and trivial in the extreme. There is no evidence to show that Parker was specially addicted to Calvinism, and it must be admitted that in the parts of the Bible translated by him there is little or no doctrine of any kind insinuated. But notes are very sparingly added to the portions of the Bible which he himself translated. Those on Genesis and Exodus were extensively altered in the second edition, and in one instance—Gen. iv. 7—the explanation given is absolutely contradictory to that of the first edition. They are for the most part of the most puerile description. Short specimens are as follows:—In Gen. xxxii. 20, on Jacob's preparing a present for Esau, the marginal note is, "All giving and receiving of presents is not evil." On Exodus xv. 20, à propos to Miriam's dancing, we have introduced newly into the edition of 1569, and retained, we believe, in all subsequent editions, "which ought not to be a cloke for our wanton dances." Neither is the tone of the notes on the New Testament such as to give a very exalted idea of the intellectual power of the Archbishop. We extract the whole of the annotations on St. Matthew as a specimen.

Geneal.—Gospell, that is, tydynges of our salvation by Christe.

Whole of the annotations on St. Matthew as a specimen.

Gospell.—Gospell, that is, tydynges of our salvation by Christe.

Matthew i. 1. the booke.—That is, the rehearsal of Christe's lineage and life.

25. and knewe her not.—This phrase doth not import that he knew her afterward, as the lyke phrase used, Mat. 5, 18 d and Psal. exi., or that she had any me children.

31. 13. his mother.—Joseph was not the father of Christ, els the angel woulde not have said, Take ye childe and his mother, but rather Take thy chylde.

32. Repent ye.—This worde is, after a faulte to be wyse, with a minde to amende.

33. Sufficient unto the day is the evyl therof.—That is, the present day hath enough of her own grief or affliction.

34. Sufficient in the bride chumber.—That is, ministers at tending in the bride chumber.—That is, ministers at tending in the bride chumber.

35. Lyddren of the bryde chumber.—That is, ministers at tending in the bride chumber.

the citie.

Our account of the notes to the Bishops' Bible would not be complete if we failed to notice the one point in which the translators neglected to comply with their instructions. They followed them to a ridiculous extent in adopting the readings of the Great Bible, when manifest improvements had been made by the Genevan translators, but they either forgot them or else voluntarily ignored them when there was an opportunity of giving a hit at the Pope and the Roman system. Perhaps the most striking

instance of this occurs in the note to the words make marchaundize in 2 Peter ii. 3. It is as follows:—

That is evidently seen in the Pope and his priestes, which by lies and flatteries sell men's souls: so that it is certayne that he is not the successour of Simon Peter but of Simon Magus.

In conclusion, we may observe that the same careless editing which we noticed as regards the first three editions of this book seems to have followed it to the end. Even in the editions of 1585 and 1602, which may be pronounced to contain the final improvements made by the Elizabethan bishops, the marginal notes were cut down to the dimensions of those of the small 4to. of 1569, where frequently notes were left out simply for want of room in

where frequently notes have the first shape of the same of soon the margin of the page, so that in this one respect these editions are inferior to the first two folios of 1568 and 1572.

We shall add no more than this, that we think the book was worthy of the bishops who occupied the English sees in the reign of Elizabeth.

We have said that there was no attempt after 1606 to revive this We have said that there was no attempt after 1606 to revive this version, and in a previous article on the Genevan Bible we observed that that version was finally suppressed by Laud. It remains, therefore, for us to notice that there was a large folio family Bible with notes, and plates, printed by M. Lewis, and issued in 1775, which is described by Lowndes as a Genevan, and has sometimes passed off for a Bishops', because it has on its title-page the words "By the Archbishops and Bishops," &c., followed by Parker's preface. It is really a Genevan as far as the Old Testament is concerned, and a Tomson of the New, there being no variations that we have detected worth notice, except the substitution of "aprons" for "breeches" in the 3rd Chapter of Genesis. We suppose it may be classed by itself as the single specimen of a Genevan Bible which is not also a Breeches Bible.

#### THE COURSE OF BUSINESS.

THE COURSE OF BUSINESS.

THE master of a sufficient majority in Parliament enjoys the immunities of rex Romanus, and is, if not super grammaticam (though, in the matter of Queen's Speeches, he is frequently this also), at any rate above feeling any awkwardness which may arise from unfulfilled prophecies and mistakes in generalship. It is probable, therefore, that Mr. Gladstone felt but little annoyance at having to make on Monday last a statement about the course and prospects of business the tenor of which was at singular variance with the tone of his demand for urgency in Supply. When making this demand he had drawn the most gloomy picture of the state of things should it not be granted. He also, with rather characteristic impatience of defeat, remarked after the division that the House had put the direction of its affairs in the hands of the minority, and he reserved a mysterious power to the Government of seriously considering the situation. Accepting Mr. Gladstone's version of the vote on Monday week, it can only be said that it is rather a pity that the affairs of the House are not always in the direction of those who, according to the Prime Minister, have directed them during the last fortnight. Last week was a week of quiet and orderly progress, and the present week has not been behindhand in the dispatch of business. The Candahar debate, for which the Government, desnite their eagerness, could not hefore find groom, or definite last fortnight. Last week was a week of quiet and orderly progress, and the present week has not been behindhand in the dispatch of business. The Candahar debate, for which the Government, despite their eagerness, could not before find room, or definite promise of room, got itself fixed on Monday. Mr. Chaplin had the greater part of a night for his foot-and-mouth disease motion, which enabled the Government to show that they have no intention of unequally benefiting farmers unless there is a possibility of injuring landlords at the same time. The long-promised Land Bill has at last had itself put down definitely for the seventh of next month, the eve of the adjournment for Easter. This adjournment, as is proper after so abnormally early a Spring Session, is to extend over a longer time than usual—a time, however, which will be hardly a holiday time for politicians, insanuch as it will doubtless be taken up with warm discussion of the Land Bill itself, which will come on for second reading immediately the House reassembles. Between the Candahar debate and the adjournment, the Mutiny Bill and Mr. Gladstone's financial statement occupy the most prominent position. The latter will, no doubt, afford its maker an opportunity of showing the remarkable dexterity with which he manipulates finance, a dexterity not denied even by the malcontents who say that it is easy to distribute surpluses which have been previously created by unnecessary taxation. The programme before Easter is thus of the most orderly and inviting character. The most urgent votes in Supply secured, grumbling private members propitiated by at least an apparent dedication of some little time to their concerns, a safe party triumph on an important question of foreign policy secured by the ingenious mot d'ordre, not to attend to any argument party triumph on an important question of foreign policy secured by the ingenious mot d'ordre, not to attend to any argument in which the word Candahar occurs—all these good things have been given to Mr. Gladstone by the action of the Opposition which so greatly disturbed him last week.

so greatly disturbed him last week.

The substantial advantages secured by this action of the Opposition doubtless consoled Mr. Gladstone for the non-fulfillment of his forebodings of evil. Another incident of the same night possessed more than the disagreeables of this non-fulfillment without its corresponding advantages. It has been pointed out before that the conduct of the Chairman of Committees in refusing to allow Mr. O'Donnell even to finish the sentence in which he wished to put a point of order was highly inconvenient, and the inconvenience turned out to be exactly what was expected. The

member for Dungarvan brought up the matter on a question of privilege, and showed that the remarks he had been going to make were entirely in order and had nothing to do with the previous ruling of the Chairman. Dr. Playfair could only make the very lame excuse that he feared Mr. O'Donnell was going to do what it seems Mr. O'Donnell was not going to do. The Chairman of Committees might perhaps with advantage have spared a sneer in which he indulged as to the inner consciousness of the member for Dungaryan. The awkward thing on the occasion member for Dungarvan. The awkward thing on the occasion seems to have been the inner consciousness of Dr. Playfair, which informed the Chairman of Committees of the tenor of a yet unspoken sentence of Mr. O'Donnell's. It was natural and characteristic that the Home Secretary should hint a doubt whether Mr. O'Donthat the Home Secretary should mit a doubt whether Mr. O Bon-nell's explanation was not invented as an afterthought; but here, too, the insinuation was unfortunate. For, so long as Chairmen of Committees refuse to allow members to finish their sentences, so long will it always be possible for them to invent plausible explanations afterwards. Dr. Playfair's haste in deciding on this occasion is particularly to be regretted when it is remembered that his remarkable reluctance to decide on the famous night which brought about urgency was the original causa malorum. To refuse to advance at the right time, and to rush on headlong at the wrong one, may be proceedings not altogether inconsistent; but the one can hardly be considered as atoning for the other. The incident placed the Government in this awkward position—that their officer had averaged a higher than the higher had averaged a higher than the considered as a second considered considered as a second considered consi ad exceeded his duty, thereby bringing upon a person, at least technically guiltless, immediate punishment and the chance of still heavier punishment in future; for it must be re-membered that the next time Dr. Playfair interprets a half sentence of Mr. O'Donnell's unfavourably, Dungarvan will cease for the time, perhaps for some considerable time, to be represented. There may, of course, be different estimates of the exact loss which the House and the country would in that case sustain; but these esti-mates cannot affect the question of the improper use which has been made of the rather arbitrary powers granted by the House to its officer. Probably Mr. Gladstone was right in thinking that a formal censure of the Chairman of Committees was to be deprecated, though it is not easy to see how his position was strengthened by the exposure of the over-haste with which he

acted.

This incident, as well as the whole course of Parliamentary history for the last three months, tends to support the view of those who hold that the due progress of business in the House of Commons depends much more on the hands that manage it than on the weapons with which those hands are armed. Despite a certain very hackneyed quotation, it is by no means certain that any one can govern with a state of siege, and it is certain that a state of siege results in demoralization of the governed, and in not a few acts of injustice to individuals which had much better not be committed. It is felt that the powers entrusted to Sneaker a few acts of injustice to individuals when had much better not be committed. It is felt that the powers entrusted to Speaker and Chairman by urgency ought to be used, and used they are accordingly. No one denies that obstruction is a great evil; the only question is whether urgency is not a greater. For the present, at any rate, it may be hoped that we have heard the last of it, though even before Easter difficulties may still produce the control of the Mattin Bill because the control of the mattin because the control of the mattin because the control of the control the last of it, though even before Easter difficulties may still arise. The Mutiny Bill has not unfrequently been a devil's bowling-green in the Parliamentary sea; and the introduction of the Land Bill, unless the unexpected happens with singular unexpectedness, will be the signal for discussion which must necessarily be long and minute, and which may in all probability be acrimonious. Hitherto the restrictions which Sir Stafford Northcote monious. Hitherto the restrictions which Sir Stafford Northcote succeeded in placing upon the granting and using of urgency have worked very well. Mr. Gladstone's hint, uttered with characteristic petulance on the first occasion when they worked against him, to the effect that they would have to be reconsidered, may have been nothing more than a passing ebullition of temper at the check. So long as these restrictions subsist, the Opposition are at least so far masters of the situation that they can resist any attempt to stifle discussion or to "rush" a Bill through any of its stages. In the case of renewal of actual disturbance and mere filliustering there is no doubt that the Government will any of its stages. In the case of renewal of actual disturbance and mere filibustering there is no doubt that the Government will receive the support to which it is entitled. But it is earnestly to be wished that in such a case the means which might have been tried, and which almost certainly would have been effectual a few weeks ago, may be preferred to future coups d'état of however mild a kind, and even to premature declarations of urgency. A walking match of divisions on undiscussed amendments is not a dignified spectacle, nor is it creditable to the reputation of the House as a place of free debate, where the vote is at least by courtesy supposed to follow the conscience and the judgment. It is not impossible that some private members may follow Mr. Dillwyn's example in drawing up for their own amusement and the edification of their colleagues fancy codes of projected measures for reducing the present gap between the ordinary and the edification of their colleagues fancy codes of projected measures for reducing the present gap between the ordinary and extraordinary conduct of business, and facilitating the former. Such codes are harmless; they are even useful in their way, but they cannot be said to be very practical. No alteration of importance in the conduct of business can proceed from any source but the Government of the day, and it would be a misfortune if any such alteration proceeded even from the Government of the day without the full concurrence of the responsible Opposition.

A FRENCHWOMAN'S REMINISCENCES OF SOME FAMOUS FRENCHMEN.

A MONG the various volumes of memoirs, correspondences, and reminiscences which just at present are following one another in such haste from the French press, the Soweniers de Madame Jaubert certainly occupy a place in the front rank. Mme. Jaubert, who is still living, knew almost every one who was worth knowing thirty or forty years ago, and has here collected her reminiscences of Berryer, Musset, Lanfrey, and Heine. The book has its faults, the primary one being that it is not simple and straightforward enough. Mme. Jaubert gives lengthy reports of detailed conversations in which several persons took part. Thus we are introduced to a whole circle of more or less brilliant talkers at Berryer's château, and in the reminiscences of Musset the poet's figure is set against a background of less conspicuous personalities, all revolving round Mme. Jaubert in that lady's drawing-room. The reader never knows how far he is to take the conversations The reader never knows how far he is to take the conversations seriously. Obviously they cannot be taken as an authoritative report of what actually was said; and there is quite enough inreport of what actually was said; and there is quite enough internal evidence to show that Mme. Jaubert's first preoccupation has been to make her puppets talk smartly and well, her second to give us the substance of what men like Berryer or Musset actually said. The company is not one of men and women who talk always sensibly and now and then brilliantly. The strain at smartness is unceasing and perpetual; there is no relief, no light and shade; and the want of simplicity and naturalness in the dialogue not only prevents the reader from being greatly amused, but inclines him to yawn. These ingenious persons are all, as represented by Mme. Jaubert, too clever by half; and, moreover, their conversation is now and then singularly unedifying. This last is a feature of the book which cannot well be illustrated by quotation, but which certainly is highly curious. Despite its a feature of the book which cannot well be illustrated by quotation, but which certainly is highly curious. Despite its interest, however, in this and other respects, it would hardly have excited the considerable interest it has in France if it had nothing to rely upon but reports published in 1881 of conversations held between 1840 and 1850. But substance is given to it by a number of letters from Berryer, Musset, Lanfrey, and others which have not hitherto been printed, and of which some are in a high degree interesting or characteristic. Moreover, the faults which make the three first sections of the book on the whole an unsatisfactory piece of reading do not apply to the reminiscences of Lanfrey and Heine. Here Mme. Jaubert's memory has not had to travel so far back as in the earlier part of the book; and the circumstances under which she knew the two men—Lanfrey, a recluse, and detesting intellectual gymnastics above all things, and Heine a paralytic—do not lend themselves to anything but a simple and straightforward record of her intercourse with both.

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The account of Berryer so largely consists either of the un-edifying reminiscences of which we have spoken, or of lengthy reports of impossible conversations, that there is not much left to The account of Berryer so largely consists either of the undifying reminiscences of which we have spoken, or of lengthy reports of impossible conversations, that there is not much left to quote. A noticeable point, however, is Berryer's almost physical repulsion towards Protestantism. He loved the pomp and ceremony of Catholicism, and used to say, "At the very idea of being in Protestant Geneva, with M. de Broglie on one hand and M. Guizot on the other, I suffer a physical oppression, I feel myself stiding." His views of the political feeling of his country are noticeable as uttered forty years ago. Prince Belgiojoso, a Milanese high in favour with Mme. Jaubert, had asked Berryer whether he thought the old aristocracy of France could possibly become again what it had been before the Revolution. Berryer said, "No, Prince, all is changed in France. At the time of my candidature, in traversing the South I have been able to convince myself how entirely that part of France, though remaining Royalist, had lost all trace of the aristocratic hierarchy. That is what Henry V. must understand, if he ever comes to his own again; otherwise he will only pass and disappear. Since all is changed in France, the form of government must change as well." Later on, when the Empire had been re-established in France, and seemed solidly planted there, Berryer's previsions were not less sagacious:—"Poor France, dear country!" he used to say to his friend Ernest Picard; "I shall not live to see the end of the Empire; but you, my dear Picard, you are young, you will be present at the catastrophe, the degradation, the ruin, the shame. We are walking into it, running into it. What blindness! what blindness!" The only good story told in the chapter on Berryer has nothing to do with Berryer. It is Prince Belgiojoso's account of the way in which Rossini's Tancred was written:—"The opera was written in six days at my house near Milan, and that in the intervals of a hunting party. When we got back in the evenings, wearied out by ten hours' hunt corner of the table, in the interval before the dinner that was to recruit our energies was served, and cover some sheets of paper with notes. Then, with the dessert, installing himself at a piano placed there on purpose, 'Come, Emilio,' he said to me, 'and thou, too, Pompeo' (my cousin, endowed with a splendid bass voice), 'come, my children, let us try that!' And you should have seen us deciphering this close scribble, the master taking to himself all the parts as yet wanting. As to the choruses, we attacked them with the full force of our lungs, thinking thus to give ourselves an idea of the effect on the stage. Then Rossini would return to his corner to alter and add other sheets. The interest we took in the business kept us awake. Why, we thought at last that we were ourselves composing! Bed-time at last. At six in the merning, a blast from Pompeo's horn awoke us

all, and we set to our hunting again, without giving another thought till the evening to this famous Tancred, of which I have the original manuscript in my house at Milan."

Berryer here took up the conversation, and told the following anecdote in reference to this same Pompeo:—"I was present one evening at a very droll dispute between Rossini and him. Pompeo had sung the first air of the Barber miraculously well, accompanied by the composer on the piano. At the finish the latter, delighted, rises from his seat and embraces the singer with the words, 'Admirable, my dearest Pompeo, thou hast understood me!' 'Understood!' cries the indignant amateur; 'I believe you! better than you understand yourself! You have made a masterpiece without suspecting it. All that there is in it of imagination, talent, truth, all that is inimitable, is a sealed book to you! I could teach you a thousand things about this composition, but I won't,' he concluded, with a dignified air, 'I keep it for myself.' 'Povero me!' said the composer, 'how he maltreats me!' And he laughed till the tears came."

In the pages on Alfred de Musset the chief feature of interest is

In the pages on Alfred de Musset the chief feature of interest is constituted by some very curious and characteristic letters from Musset himself. In one of these he explains and apologizes for certain faults of manner with which his "marraine," as he used to call Mme. Jaubert, had reproached him. "Every one," he writes, "is agreed on the unpleasantness of my manner in a drawing-room. Not only do I agree with everybody, but this unpleasantness is more unpleasant to me than it can be to any one else. Whence comes it? From two main causes, pride and shyness. Such are the charming principles on which I have to base my sublunary existence. One does not change his nature; needs must then to make the best terms with it one can. I have been doing my best for some time past, that you must allow. You tell me of people who would willingly express to me now and then the pleasure my writings have been able to give them. I pledge you my word that, of any ten compliments, nine are absolutely intolerable to me; I don't mean that they offend me, or that I pledge you my word that, of any ten compliments, nine are absolutely intolerable to me; I don't mean that they offend me, or that I find them false; they simply give me a consuming desire to take myself off. Explain that if you can. . . . There is a phrase in your letter which is very true, very just, and it is a melancholy one for me. 'You estrange men of head and heart who feel themselves moved to desire your friendship.' Yes, it is true; and do you suppose that I do not perceive it? that I do not regret it now and then?" The subject matter of these letters is not always merely of a personal kind. Sometimes Musset asks his correspondent's opinion on a literary matter, generally on some point in his own poems. Thus he writes:—

What do you think of these three verses?

Lorsque ma bien aimée entr'ouvre sa paupière Sombre comme la nuit, pur comme la lumière, Sur l'émail de ses yeux brille un diamant noir.

I am anxious to know if that pleases you. I have written it with two good things, a little saying of yours and the remembrance of Paolita. I warn you that some people have found it bold, but is it certain that boldness is a fault?

The greater part of the correspondence is, however, taken up with the history of Musset's love affair with the Princess Belgiojoso. The Princess was glad to have Musset for a friend, but would hear nothing of love. The poet, however, would have a grand passion or nothing, and reviled the Princess to Mme. Jaubert as the most heartless of coquettes. This is one of his letters to his confidente, which is characteristic both of Musset's weakness of fibre and also of the queer humour of which he possessed so large a share:—

Godmother,—Your godson is done for !!! Do you know what this poor wretch has done? He has written a letter with his heart upon the page, no reserves, no embellishments, no wrappings up, no triflings, no nothing. And he has been hit over the head for it. He has received a reply—O godmother! a reply might, and perhaps ought, to be committed to the press. The noble disdain in it falls to about 80 degrees (not centigrade) below zero; its perfect calm is 120 degrees below that point; the whole representing a 200 horse-power or thereabouts.

And now, can you imagine what this poor wretch first did on receiving this immortal reply? He (that is, I) began by weeping like a calf for a good half-hour. Yes, godmother, hot tears, such as I have shed in my best days, my head in my hands, my two elbows on my bed, my cravat under foot, and my knees on my best coat. There I sobbed like a child that its nurse is washing, and had besides the advantage of suffering like a dog that is being sewn up (metaphor from the chase).

As you may imagine, after this I was in such a state of vexation that I could swim in it.

My room was a perfect ocean of bitterness, as people say, and I took headers in the water one after another. Viil Vin 10.

As you may imagine, after this I was in such a state of vexation that I could swim in it.

My room was a perfect ocean of bitterness, as people say, and I took headers in the water, one after another. Vil: Vlan! flan! pagn! &c.

After this exercise I became prodigiously angry. I can't tell you with what; but very angry I was, and that lasted two good hours. Thank heaven, I didn't break anything.

Then I began to feel somewhat tired, and I began to cry again, but only a little, by way of refreshment.

After that I ate four eggs. They were fried. And then (which means now) I felt tired again. I am quite worn out by all I have been through, which is why I am writing you all this trash.

You would die with laughing if you could see me: my hair like a forest; my left eye starting from my head, my right still snivelling and half-closed and very black, my nose as red as a carrot, and my face pulled out like an old mask that has got wet at a fair.

Ah, Jove! These are thy little games! The devil take them; for they are worse than games of hazard.

Sacre bleu, godmother, these little jokes are painful enough in their

way.

Now, seriously, henceforth I shall abstain from all correspondence or connexion whatsoever with her most Serene Highness; I won't play any more, under any pretext whatever.

There are plenty of similar letters in the collection; but a sample is quite sufficient to illustrate Musset's strange and very faulty character. There can, however, be no question that, in dealing almost solely with his love affairs, Mme. Jaubert has presented the poet from an unfavourable point of view. As if by way of contrast, her next chapter of reminiscences is devoted to Pierre Lanfrey, the historian of the Empire, the first feature of whose character was uncompromising rectitude and an almost austere sense of personal dignity. He remained unmarried, though by no means unsusceptible to the attractions of feminine society, partly for the sake of his work and partly for the sake of his independence. He refused, though poor and even comparatively obscure at the time, the post of first leader-writer on the Journal des Débats, because the Orleanist leanings of the paper did not exactly square with his personal convictions. He conquered fame and an honourable position among men of letters simply by the rare qualities of his work, without any attempt to make himself popular or even particularly agreeable as a person, and he not only had every intention of winning this position, but knew he should do so. Yet there was nothing disagreeably self-assertive about the man. He would not be the tame cat of Mme. Jaubert's or any other Parisian drawing-room; but he was quite capable of a kindly and playful humour in his dealings with those whom he loved and trusted. Mme. Jaubert told him on one occasion that, so far from calling him "rosebud," as a pretty Englishwoman with whom they were both acquainted had done, in reference to the extreme youthfulness and ruddiness of his personal appearance, she would call him by the far apter name of Ferocino. Lanfrey accepted the implied rebuke, promised that he would suppress his satirical vein in conversation in future, and ever afterwards in writing to her signed himself Ferocino. The jest pleased him, and on one occasion he left a little bronze Japanese tiger cat, which he had e

Then began a singular contest between a boy just fifteen and a chief who united to the authority of his position all that the Jesuitical quintessence of a trained intellect could summon to its aid to overcome the pupil's strength of resistance. When the competitive examinations came round, the college used to be very proud of my numerous nominations. This time was drawing near, and the Superior did his best therefore to draw a confession of crime from me along with sufficient expression of contrition to justify indulgence. Irritated by my obstinacy, he tried threats. I should be sent back to my mother. Ah, that was a tender point. I knew all the sacrifices that this would involve. To keep myself from giving in, I kept repeating to myself that, Roman matron as she was, my mother would approve of my conduct. Once more persuasive mildness replaced threats. "My child, you must think of the future. Your brilliant studies would be continued here."

Then suddenly the chief's anger burst out at the continued obstinacy of the pupil. Calling to one of the minor brothers, he ordered him to fetch a couple of the college servants, and turning to me he said, "You have concealed about you, placed on your chest, the wicked document I demand. If you don't give it up at once, I shall have it taken from you by force. Now choose!"

I could not come out conqueror from such a struggle; a contest on two bush tower was too inventioned. It yield to have force," and I giving the

I could not come out conqueror from such a struggle; a contest on such terms was too ignominious. "I yield to brute force," said I, giving the manuscript. . . . What has become of it, I wonder? Some day it may turn up perhaps.

Such was the boy who was to become the most uncompromising of historians, and such he remained through life. Of the history itself Mme. Jaubert does not tell us much that is new. Very interesting, however, is Lanfrey's account, given to her, of a too brief conversation with Thiers. Mme. Jaubert asked Lanfrey one day, jobingly ......

"Have you really forgiven him your terrible dissection of his work on the Empire? Thiers, I am sure, owes you no grudge for it. The incapacity for rancour is one of his most precious qualities as a statesman. But I should like to know whether, when you are together, the historian never makes his appearance?" "Your question, my dear friend," replied Lanfrey, "is singularly a propos. Three weeks ago I happened to be next him at the dinner table. All at once he leant over to me, and for the first and only time he said; 'Ah, mon cher! if I had only known you when I wrote my History of Napoleon.' Ale continued speaking, but I could not distinguish the words. 'Of Napoleon,' said I, to induce him to repeat what he had been saying. I saw the lips move, but not a sound passed them. Painfully moved by this melancholy symptom of the approaching end, I pretended to have heard. Divining from his expressive pantomime that he was trying to say something which would have the effect of surprising me, I articulated a 'C'est fort curieux'! Proposing to myself to resume the subject another day. Another day! but his hours were numbered; once more only he came to my house, and that was the last time."

#### THE BURDEN OF FURNITURE.

THE heavy and the weary weight of modern furniture is beginning to be something more than a minor misery. Twenty years ago, when people took a house, the man left the furnishing to the woman, much as rustic and savage persons leave the cares

of agriculture and of work in general to the other sex. The lady had what she considered a good time, she passed many hours in shops, she bought just what she liked. She never dreamed of going to a series of lectures on tables, chairs, and "horses" for towels. She was not made unhappy by the difficulty of reconciling usefulness and art in an umbrella-stand. She never read books on furniture, like one by Mr. Edis (Decoration and Furniture of Town Houses. Kegan Paul and Co.) which we have been studying with feelings of extreme depression. A lady got what she liked, and what her neighbours had. Her only doubt about a coal-scuttle was whether it should be adorned with a coloured copy of one of Landseer's big dogs, or with an equally brilliant study of a pretty girl with a pink parasol. Her dining-room carpet was "roses, roses all the way," like the triumphant career of Mr. Browning's patriot, before he came to grief at the next general election. Her drawing-room carpet was adorned with lilies of the valley on a green ground. The curtains were green, too, and hung from a very thick gilt beam, not unlike a large model of a Roman battering-ram. Her chimneypieces were of plain black or white marble, and on these she arranged vases of pink and white glass, the gifts of her excellent friends. In the middle of the drawing-room chairs were tiny gilt ones, on which large men invariably sat down, with ruinous results. The mirrors were bigenough to have practised figure-skating upon if they could have been laid down on the floor. The walls were usually papered either with a velvety kind of "flock" paper or with a light lavender tissue, on which roses and blue dahlias were repeated regardless of expense. The fenders were made of shining steel contorted into patterns. When these arrangements had been rapidly completed people settled down among their effects and thought no more about the matter. Men never gave the subject a thought from first to last.

Since those early days we have survived several revolutions in furniture. First the Gothic business came in. Our tables were to be of oak, with little things like small church windows in the legs. Our chairs were like those of the end of the twelfth century. Everything was "pointed" to the last degree. We were instructed to have our crests and bearings emblazoned and embroidered on our curtains. Small houses were made as far as possible to resemble baronial halls about the date of Front de Boenf. Coal-scuttles were huge oak chests with brazen joints and fittings. Whatever was not oak was brass, robur et æs triplex, in the domestic furniture of an advanced person, say fifteen years ago. Then came that great and sacred movement, the Renascence of Queen Anne. Probably Mr. Thackeray and Esmond were the great unconscious causes of this revival. It was natural that a writer who knew the Augustan age by heart should admire its architecture, furniture, and plate. But people less well acquainted with the nymphs Kneller drew, and the books Bentley read, went in for Queen Anne. They produced such a mixture of dates and styles, as Mr. Thackeray described in the account of Buttons's Coffee-house, in George de Barnwell. "Queen Anne "was a general term for any furniture remotely resembling what was produced between the death of King William and the accession of the Regent. The influence of Mr. Morris then made itself felt, an influence which combines much beauty and careful workmanship, with a suspicion of melancholy and mildew. This was exaggerated by "the Passionate Intense," if we may coin a double term on the model of "the Fair Impertinent." Then the cheap upholstorers rushed into the field, and flooded the market with flimsy things in black wood and sham Japanese drawing, which they styled "Queen Anne," or "High Art," or "Early English" furniture, at random. People now buy a brass coal scuttle, and an ebonized what-not, and think themselves authorities on the decorative arts. The whole affair is over-done, and too much t

The great thing in these purely domestic and personal mattersurely is that people should leave each other alone. At present a sensible person who has arranged his house as he likes to have it is subjected to a double annoyance. He is claimed as an ally by the die-away dowdies of the mouldy school, or by the gaudy frumps who boast of their own indifference to taste. It seems a most absurd and puerile thing that people should go to books and lecturers to learn how to buy chairs and tables, curtains, and wall-papers. There can be no natural taste while these topics are debated with the ardour of religious controversy. Buy what you like, what you can afford, what will last, as good workmanship should do, and what you can easily carry away with you when you change your house, is the only advice that is worth offering. Mr. Edis says that a great many people do not know what they like. This is because they have been so disturbed and worried by the exaggerated earnestness of artistic affectation on one side,

and of pharisaical morality on the other. The consequence of this want of naturalness and certainty of taste is a demand for "Cantor Lectures" on furnishing, which Mr. Edis has delivered, and of books on decoration and furniture, like that in which he has embodied his lectures. His book may do some people good—the rich ignorant people who put themselves in the hands of an expensive fashionable upholsterer. The tradesman is sure to fill their houses with all the newest rubbish in the way of sham Japanese work and sham antiquities. But perhaps his victims are beyond hope, even from books. They generally belong to the large class which is incapable of reading at all; and, as they like to be deceived, deceived let them be. They are the born prey of oppositions are supposited.

who is the state of the sham black-and-gold and flimsy tawdry painting of the shops. He tries to show how furniture may be both pretty and cheap, and often recommends simple deal. Unluckily that wood is too often unseasoned, and splits after it has been a week in a house. The designs of furniture and decounting may be both pretty and cheap, and often recommends simple deal. Unluckily that wood is too often unseasoned, and splits after it has been a week in a house. The designs of furniture and decoration in Mr. Edis's book too often threaten his readers with the nervous affliction known to Americans as "the jumps." "A Drawing-Room Corner," which forms the frontispiece, seems to us "a dread and grimly thing," as the poets say. Beginning at the top, you have a cornice which is inoffensive. A large space is then occupied by a painted frieze. On the right hand is a low wall, with a peacock sitting thereon, and a number of tall plants sprawling around. A big, buxom lass, with bare arms, is watering the plants, and looking round towards the door, where a swain is perhaps about to enter. On the left-hand corner of the frieze we make out a lady, apparently of Japanese origin, a garden, two common tubs of the well-known saucer shape, and a pitcher. Beneath the frieze the wall is papered "with fruits and flowers, and other winged things," if we may quote a poet now rarely read. Many pictures are hung on the wall. There is also a kind of armoire, full of porcelain, and the panels are decorated with pictures of young ladies' faces. Beneath are some very big books, "Liddell and Scott," and atlases, we should say at a guess. There is a sconce with candles, a table with books and flowers, and a few chairs. Mr. Edis himself is the designer. Now, as a matter of taste, we cannot pretend to like this drawing-room corner. The young ladies, and flowers, and pitchers, and tubs, and the peacock, and garden-wall would continually fret and distract us. The other young women on the panels seem no less pertinacious and annoying. But this is purely a question of taste, and we do not see how young women on the panels seem no less pertinacious and annoying. But this is purely a question of taste, and we do not see how morality comes into it. Let a moralist of the press come into the room, and his desire would be to break all the porcelain. But it seems very nice porcelain, and can be moved when the owners change their house. We do not know whether the painting is a feature but we have so because the part transfer will copy in a fixture, but we hope so, because the next tenants will certainly paper it over when they come into the house.

pager it over when they come into the house.

Mr. Edis has a picture of a dining-room which is not more congenial to us. The tenant has found the abomination of desonation—namely, "an ordinary mantelpiece" in the room. This shows us "how a common mantelpiece may be treated" or converted. You run a light rod beneath the shelf on which you hang curtains to hide its ordinary sides. You crowd the shelf with china (what will the moral critic say?), and add three other shelves also rich in porcelain. Above the shelves is another frieze. "After fashioning this, never another may he fashion, whoso hang curtains to hide its ordinary sides. You crowd the shelf with china (what will the moral critic say?), and add three other shelves also rich in porcelain. Above the shelves is another frieze. "After fashioning this, never another may he fashion, whoso stored in his craft this device," as Homer says about the belt of Hercules. Four mediseval characters, headed by a rather bald man, are being welcomed by a mediseval host, reinforced by an elderly lady, a child, a greyhound, and so forth. The word "Welcome" is blazoned in the middle, and a text from Shakspeare is printed on the wall. In the arrangements of the study mantelpiece Mr. Edis redeems his character in the eyes of the moral censor. Here there is comparatively little blue china. Two old corselets are propped on the top of little cupboards. In one cupboard stand two "double-shot scatter guns," in the other are a sabre, a bill (we think) and something not anlike an assegai. In these rough times the householder needs this shining store. There is an alarm of burglars; he steals into his study, braces on his corselet, takes his two loaded guns, a sabre, and an assegai, and boldly confronts the furtive intruders. For less capital occasions, a range of sticks and whips is visible beneath a row of plates. The pipe of peace is kept in a small capboard above the shelf of the mantelpiece.

It will be seen that Mr. Edis is not the advocate of a life devoted to constant worship of porcelain alone. If people want advice about furniture, his is generally sound and simple, and he always insists on the necessity of honest workmanship. His affection for painted mural decorations is one with which we cannot sympathize, but his book will interest, and possibly instruct, readers who do not know what they like in matters of household taste. Mr. Edis thinks they are the majority of mankind.

#### SOCIALIST JOURNALISM.

FROM the horrible, like the sublime, to the ridiculous is but a step, and were it not for the stern reality of the attendant circumstances, the manifesto just issued by the Socialists in London on the occasion of the assassination of the Czar would

be almost amusing. The document in question appears in a German paper, entitled Freiheit, which is the organ of the extreme Socialist party, which is published in London every Friday, and which is now in its third year of existence. The number to which we refer is ornamented with a bright red border in honour of the dastardly deed which is extelled in the pages of Freiheit in the coarsest and most brutal strains. The leading article is entitled "Endlich," and is headed by a quotation in

Though thou seize on this or that one, One of them at length will reach thee-

One of them at length will reach thee—

It begins with exclamations of triumph that the words of the poet have been fulfilled, and the Emperor of Russia, "one of the most horrible tyrants in Europe, whose destruction had long been sworn, is no more." The italies are in the original. It was, says the Freiheit, "as the monster was returning from one of the usual amusements which the blind hordes of blood and iron slaves provide for him, and which are called 'military parades'—that the death-doom long pronounced reached him and did for him." "Five times," it goes on to say, "had it been granted to this Canaille to touch the bundary line between Here and Yonder, and to prate about the finger of God having saved his accursed life, when the hand of the people stopped his mouth for ever!" Throughout the document the Imperial victim is always the "tyrant," the "monster," the "canaille," and the like, while the assassin is "one of those dauntless young men whom the social revolutionary movement in Russia has brought to the front"; the ghastly details of the injuries inflicted on the Czar are gloated over with savage sarcasm, and even the death and wounds spread ghastly details of the injuries inflicted on the Czar are gloated over with savage sarcasm, and even the death and wounds spread amongst the harmless bystanders are made the subject of congratulation. But the chief source of joy to the amiable writers is the "manifold and drastic" effect of the news upon the princes and ruling classes throughout the world, "those guilt-laden ones who have long a thousand times merited a like fate." The German Emperor—we omit the qualifying epithets which are not only unpleasant but monotonous—"was thrown into convulsions through excitement; similar things took place at other Courts, and howling and gnashing of teeth reigned in every capital." Then comes the moral of the event. "The ruling classes see in the recent annihilation of a tyrant more than the mere act; they stand face to face with a significant attack on classes see in the recent animination of a tyrant more than the mere act; they stand face to face with a significant attack on authority as such." This frank avowal is almost refreshing; it reduces the principles of the party to a simple and intelligible form, and appeals to the members nearly in the words which a well-known writer of burlesque puts into the mouth of one of his resolutioners have a simple and intelligible form. revolutionary heroes :-

But we must post things!

Vive la République! ha, ha! down with most things.

Vive la République! ha, ha! down with most things.

All who are guilty of the unpardonable crime of respectability and order are doomed, and "long-forfeited heads tremble from Constantinople to Washington." Society, at any rate, need he in no doubt about the real nature of the Socialist programme. The remainder of the article is conceived in a similar spirit; it laments that regicide is so seldom practised, "For if at least one crowned scamp were destroyed per month, there would be less desire to play at monarchy." The suggestion is a somewhat unsportsmanlike wish, as the game would become too scarce if killed in this wholesale way, and where would then be the opportunity of the "dauntless young men" who throw bombshells? Great Titchfield Street should really consider the advisableness of a "close time" for tyrants. The whole concludes with the prayer that "the doughty deed, which—we repeat it—has our full sympathy, may animate the revolution far and wide with fresh courage."

The next article in this pleasant little paper glorifies the Paris Commune, the outbreak of which is to be held, it appears, as a Socialist holy day by the workmen of all countries. But what is most to be admired is the business-like manner and magisterial impartiality with which the powers whose seat is in Great Titchfield Street disease of the fete of the swell. The

is most to be admired is the business-like manner and magis-terial impartiality with which the powers whose seat is in Great Titchfield Street dispose of the fate of the world. The case of each country is taken in turn, and of course the wrongs of Ireland are not forgotten; after devoting a column to this subject and to the distribution of lands in the country amongst the aristocracy by various monarchs, the Freiheit thus pronounces sentence:—"We declare that private proprietorship which has been only wen through royal plundering and royal favouritism." This only won through royal plundering and royal favouritism." This is good news for the Land League. The Thunderer of Great Titchfield Street has pronounced the doom of "landlordism," and we shall look forward with interest to future articles in Freiheit upon some of those "dauntless young men whom the social revolutionary movement" in Ireland has brought to the front, and who fearlessly fire into bedrooms where babies of the tyrant class are sleeping. It is true that England and its Queen are not openly ing. It is true that England and its Queen are not openly or specially attacked in this number; nor is the reader counselled to introduce bomb-practice in London or Windsor for the present. Possibly the contempt of the rédaction for "authority as such" is modified by the knowledge that there is a policeman to be found upon the beat outside the office door; and that a too ardent patriot is here less likely to earn the crown of political martyrdom than to be bound over to keep the peace and be locked up in default. The recent mean and clumsy attempt upon the Mansion House is, however, noticed; and there is evidently a feeling of regretful sadness that the particular "executor of the people's justice" concerned, to quote the \*Freiheit's\* favourite phrase, cannot be claimed as a comrade. There is, certainly, a show of mysterious wisdom in speaking of the powder-box as being placed upon the spot where it was found by an "unknown hand" in quotation marks; but the fact that the writer is obliged to confess that he could suggest no motive for the stupid outrage, and hints at the "international police" being at the bottom of it, seems to show that it has no connexion with the Socialist movement. It is significant, however, that the incident is chosen as the only piece of news concerning England worthy of insertion in the paper. It was "a significant attack upon authority as such," a piece of "pure cussedness," in fact, which recommends itself strongly to the apostles of the revolution. It is enough that there should be a person of position, and that an unknown should, so to speak, "heave half a brick at him," to earn the "fullest sympathy" of Great Titchfield Street." All police are "international" with the Freiheit's writers; they are all unworthy minions of the same tyrant band who dare to assert that folks have a right to the enjoyment of their own lives and property. The news from America is more apposite, and a greater cause for rejoicing. There a great and glorious assembly of the champions of freedom was held; a classical or historical scholar had even been found to supply them with an appropriate motto, "Sic semper tyrannis," and "after the Russian General Klemenko had expressed his joy at the successful deed, General Hasselman took up the debate and said, 'Alexander is not the only bloodhound in Europe. The Emperor William is not one whit better, and the whole family deserves to be rooted out." After this amiable sentiment the meeting telegraphed to the Russian Committee the following encouraging message:—" Brothers, we approve your good example. Kill, destroy, make tabula rasa [classical again], till all your enemies are annihilated!" We are not told if the message reached the Committee in Russia without any official hindrance.

chemies are annihilated!" We are not told if the message reached the Committee in Russia without any official hindrance.

Coarse and ignorant bombast is like a bad engraving; so long as it offends only against good taste it may be let alone; but when either offends against common decency and the first principles of morality, the case is altered, and the interference of the law becomes a duty. The liberty of the press is one of our most cherished privileges, and Englishmen can point with pride to the fact that English journalism, unfettered as it is, has been ever on the side of true freedom and progress. The very responsibility which liberty of action confers has always proved a safeguard against license, and it may be laid down as an axiom that no popular outbreak or disturbance of society has ever been traced, in this country at least, to the freedom with which opinions are allowed to be expressed. When, however, alien agitators in our midst openly assail the very groundwork of society, and preach murder and sedition, it becomes a question, not of curtailing these privileges, but of considering the advisableness of applying existing remedies against immorality and crime. What must strike every one in reading such literature as this journal which assumes the name of "Freedom" is the obstinate stand which it makes against freedom itself. The very basis of society is the fact that it is an organization for ensuring the exercise of freedom by its members, limiting that exercise only where individual liberty of action would act prejudicially to the interests of the rest. The Socialist, at least as he allows himself to be represented in such publications, by endawouring to uproot society is aiming the deadlest blow at personal liberty. England, in providing an asylum to refugees of all sects and opinions, acknowledges the existence of possible political grievances, and offers unlimited freedom to those who either cannot, or believe that they cannot, obtain it in their own country. It is scarcely fair to repay this

#### THE CLOSING OF SURREY CHAPEL.

enthusiastic declaration of the Chairman of the last public gathering assembled in Surrey Chapel, on Monday evening, that "this is one of the most hallowed and sacred spots in South London." But the series of valedictory services and meetings which have been held during the last fortnight to celebrate what is almost the centenary, as well as the closing, of the Chapel—for it was opened in June 1783—do not lack a plausible justification. What Westminster Abbey is to the National Church, and Moorfields Chapel—the scene of Lord George Gordon's incendiary zeal and afterwards Cardinal Wiseman's pro-Cathedral—to the Roman Communion in England, Surrey Chapel is to the Nonconformists. It is certainly not the oldest Dissent-

ing place of worship extant but it is the one which has the best claim to be considered historical. And curiously enough it is not altogether Nonconformist either, for its ministers and congregations would have claimed, we believe—it is necessary now to use the past tense—to be Dissenting members of the Church of England. From first to last the English Prayer-book, with certain adaptations, was used there, and, if we are not mistaken, the surplice was worn by those who conducted its services. Rowland Hill the founder was himself in deacon's orders, and among those who occasionally assisted him in his ministrations were not only eminent Dissenting preachers like Parsons and Jay but two of the personages chronicled by Sir James Stephen as "the four great Evangelical Fathers of the Church of England," Thomas Scott, and Henry Venn, who were like himself, disciples of Whittield, Surrey Chapel indeed was never attached to any particular denomination, but was a kind of neutral ground where in former days moderate Dissenters and Evangelical Churchmen were supposed to be able to meet for mutual edification. For many years past it has been chiefly associated with the name of Mr. Newman Hall, but he and his followers in fact left it five years ago, to migrate to the more pretentious fane of "Christ Church" in the Westminster Bridge Road, which they still occupy. Since then it has been in the hands of the Primitive Methodists, but has now at the expiry of the long lease reverted to the freeholders, and will most likely be pulled down. But its interest is mainly an historical one, from its connexion with Rowland Hill and the religious movement a peculiar phase of which he represented. And in order to perpetuate this historical memory the edifice attached to the new "Christ Church" is named Hawkstone Hall from the ancestral mansion near Shrewsbury, where Rowland Hill was born. There are probably few even now who have not heard of the great preacher, though to most men of the present generation the name of Rowland Hill would

Rowland Hill was born in 1744, when the Wesleyan movement was already making itself felt as a power in the country, and the Evangelical revival, which followed in its wake, and claims Whitfield rather than Wesley as its patriarch, was as yet in its first youth. He was of good family, and was educated at Eton and Oxford, and two of his brothers held preferment in the Church. Of the two others the eldest represented his county in parliament, while Sir Richard Hill distinguished himself in the army and won the rank of General. Rowland from an early age, manifested signs of the religious enthusiasm which was then in the air, and he began to preach at Cambridge and in Dissenting Chapels in London while still a very young man. He was in fact, together with some of his chosen associates, sent away from Oxford on account of his "Methodism"—a charge as serious in those days as "Puseyism" at a later date—and is said to have applied several times for ordination before his request was granted, nor does he appear ever to have received priest's orders. But so great was his reputation as a preacher that, on Whitfield's death in 1770, there was a very general wish that Rowland Hill should take his place. The plan seems to have fallen through owing to the opposition of his family to his occupying so prominent a position in a sect that was everywhere spoken against. He continued however to make preaching tours in various parts of England till in 1782 the first stone was laid of Surrey Chapel, which was opened for service in June of the following year. Of this chapel he held the incumbency for fifty years, but this did not prevent his still devoting the summers to his missionary peregrinations throughout England and Wales, and even sometimes Scotland and Ireland, nor was he ever without an admiring and zealous audience. It is said of Whitfield that he had cultivated the histrionic art to a perfection which has rarely been obtained even by professional actors, and Foote and Garriek, who used frequently to hear him, observed that "

We have dwelt on Whitfield's comic vein because Rowland Hill certainly emulated in this respect the methods as well as the teaching of his master. His quaint and abrupt sallies of wit undoubtedly added much to the popularity, if not to the dignity, of his preaching, as when he dropped a heavy Bible from the pulpit on the head of his stertorous clerk in the desk below, with the awakening admonition, "If you won't

hear the Word of God, you shall feel it." On another occasion he looked at his congregation through a large hole in his pocket handkerchief, observing, "There's a nice housewife for you," and pointing to his wife who sat in her pew below. It has been said of him by a French critic that his innumerable homilies had the piquancy "of a pamphlet, a proverb, and almost of a caricature." This critic adds the somewhat perplexing comment that, "as regards what is called 'the dignity of the pulpit,' one understands that in the country of the Shakspearian tragedy this expression has little force,' especially in "a sect which shuns the pomps of the Auglican Church." In our own day the City Temple has a name for jocosity quite as broad as Rowland Hill's, but not, if report speaks true, so uniformly subordinated to the ends of Evangelical edification. In later years his style was graver, as is not wonderful, when we recollect that he went on preaching regularly till his death in his eightyninth year. As he always preached extempore very few of his discourses were published. His chief work, the Village Dialogues, ran through six editions the last of which appeared in 1809. None of the other writings he left behind him can be said to possess any permanent value. One of them, in which all kinds of theatrical amusements, balls, concerts, soirées, horseraces, and the like, are vehemently denounced as incompatible with the spirit of Christianity, passed rapidly through three editions. In another he criticizes with some asperity the various religious bodies in Scotland, which evidently looked with no favour on his vagrant apostolate in that country. The General Assembly indeed went so far as to issue a Pastoral Admonition against him, which proves that the influence he acquired there must have been considerable. English readers would be more interested in a brochure which touches on what is still a burning question in the Established Church, the sale of livings. It is entitled Spiritual Characteristics, represented in an Account o combining the vigour of Cobbett with the humour of Swift, the logic of Bentham, and the eloquence of Fox. It may at least serve to explain why he made for himself so purely independent a position, and was so little in sympathy with the authorities and actual working of the Church of his own day. Yet his relations can hardly have been very intimate with his Dissenting brethren in the ministry, who would look with suspicion on his modified Anglicanism and his aristocratic connexions. When he was buried under the pulpit of his own Chapel, his nephew Lord Hill, then Commander in Chief, was the chief mourner.

It is sometimes asked whether, in this age of universal education and a cheap press, the pulpit still retains the power it for-

tion and a cheap press, the pulpit still retains the power it for-merly possessed. The fundamental distinction between a hearing merly possessed. The fundamental distinction between a hearing and a reading age, due to the invention of printing, must of course at once be allowed to affect materially the exclusive force of oratory, whether secular or sacred, as an engine of popular influence. No political party in these days would "set on the orators" against a powerful rival, as did the opponents of Alcibiades. Nor would a modern usurper, like Richard III., consider the sermon of a favourite preacher at Paul's Cross the most effective means of impressing his claims on the general public, or a modern sovereign care, like Elizabeth, to "tune the pulpits"; they would prefer to "hire the press." In the graphic account Thucydides has left us of the arrival at Athens of the news of the seizure of Elateia the centre of interest is the market place, and the fatal tidings care, and Enizoeth, to "tune the pulpits"; they would prefer to "hire the press." In the graphic account Thucydides has left us of the arrival at Athens of the news of the seizure of Elateia the centre of interest is the market place, and the fatal tidings of the destruction of the Athenian army in Sicily was first promulgated in a barber's shop, but the Chelsea pensioners in the picture are reading the news of the battle of Waterloo in the Gazette. The early Fathers and the leading Reformers—for the press was then still in its infancy—were great preachers as well as theologians, but religious convictions are propagated now by other means than the pulpit. And it must further be admitted that the mere spread of knowledge and opening out of new lines of thought has of itself limited the unique supremacy once exercised over men's minds by religious ideas; the scientific lecturer and Parliamentary speaker dispute the monopoly once enjoyed by the preacher. But, after making full allowance for these obvious and inevitable changes, it may fairly be questioned if the influence of the pulpit within its own sphere, when the right man can be found to wield it, is at all less than it was a century ago. There is indeed one notable difference, for whereas at that period the Anglican clergy were commonly reproached, not wholly without cause, with being "dumb dogs that could not bark," and the pious Philistine, who "went where he could get most good," as the phrase ran, was pretty sure to go to Zion or Ebenezer, now it is just the reverse. Angel James, Robert Hall, Rowland Hill, and Edward Irving have passed away, and have left no successors. If we look back over the last fifty years the names that most readily occur to us are such as Melville, Simeon, Newman, Robertson, Liddon, names of different calibre and recalling very different schools of thought, but all belonging to preachers of unquestioned power who have delivered their message from the pulpits of the English Church. Wherever, and in so far as, our modern pulpits hav

because they had something to say, and were resolved to leave their hearers, whether friendly or unfriendly, no excuse for mis-taking what it was. Possunt quia posse videntur is in other things besides a boat-race the true secret of success.

#### GUARDIANS OF THE POOR.

To-DAY the nomination of candidates for the unpleasant but I important post of Poor Law Guardians will be completed, and in about a fortnight the votes will be collected. As a class the London Guardians have greatly improved. There is still much to be amended in the administration of some Unions, but much to be amended in the administration of some Unions, but the gross scandals which were formerly-common have been abated, and an approach has been made to a uniform treatment of the London paupers. There are two opposite temptations to which Guardians of the Poor are necessarily open. They have to stand between the pauper and the ratepayer, and it is not always an easy matter to apportion their respective claims. The advocates of the two extreme views are largely responsible for one another's excesses. The brutality which has sometimes been shown to the inmates of workhouses and to the recipients of out-door relief has naturally excited the indignation of philanthropists; while the disregard to all considerations savouring of economy which has occasionally marked the reaction against undue parsimony has been extremely irritating to the large class to whom the amount of the rates is a serious matter. There is really no antagonism whatever between economy and good administration, but nowhere is it more difficult to get this fact recognized than in the relief of the poor. Charitable people do not always remember that the Guardians are not dealing with their own money, and needy ratepayers sometimes forget that relief which is neither adequate nor appropriate may be more costly in the end than a larger outlay undertaken with more judgment, and a larger view of consequences. Nothing is gained by denying that the motives which lead men to become Guardians of the Poorhave sometimes very little to do either with the poor themselves or with the ratepayers at whose cost they are relieved. A candidate comes forward with many protestations of his desire to the gross scandals which were formerly common have been abated, have sometimes very little to do either with the poor themselves or with the ratepayers at whose cost they are relieved. A candidate comes forward with many protestations of his desire to save money and of the identity of interest which unites him with the mass of the electors. The persons with whom his interests are really identified are the various contractors who hope to profit by his good word. More than three-quarters of a million was spent last year on the relief of the poor in London, and to those who have a strong belief that where so much money passes through the Guardians' hands some of it is sure to stick, there is something inspiriting in the sound of such a total. Contractors are seldom ungrateful, and the tradesman who is chosen to supply are seldom ungrateful, and the tradesman who is chosen to supply a workhouse with the article in which he deals will certainly desire that the Guardian at whose instance his tender has been accepted shall be something the richer for his intervention. Any one who has had much to do with Committees which have to one who has had much to do with Committees which have to lay out money will remember how honestly convinced each member may be that his own friend is the man who can best be entrusted with whatever it is that has to be done, and it would be idle to look for any special delicacy on this head among Boards of Guardians. The skin is nearer than the shirt, and the friend whom he has seen has more claim upon a Guardian than the ratepayers whom he has merely canvassed. A Guardian whose conscience is not quite easy upon the question of favouritism is likely to be especially scrupulous upon other points. If he feels that the price paid for the workhouse supplies has been a little high, he will be all the more anxious that they shall be dispensed with strict frugality. Extravagance from which neither he nor his friends can derive any benefit is peculiarly distasteful to him.

from which neither he nor his friends can derive any benefit is peculiarly distasteful to him.

The really extravagant type of Guardian is not often met with, though a larger outlay is constantly urged upon the authorities by amateur Guardians outside. The explanation of this is probably to be found in the peculiar character of a Guardian's work. That work is both uninviting and enlightening—uninviting because it deals almost entirely with the unattractive side of poverty; enlightening because it brings those who do it into contact with the poor as they are, and not as they wish to be thought by those who befriend them. Unfortunately the ratepayers are not always careful enough to distinguish between real and apparent economy. The man who is constantly in want of pence canby those who beniend them. Unfortunately the ratepayers are not always careful enough to distinguish between real and apparent economy. The man who is constantly in want of pence cannot easily be brought to believe that an expenditure of pounds may in the end be a saving of them. The truth of this is often seen in other branches of the public service, but in none perhaps is it so conspicuous as in the administration of poor relief. The two great heads to which it applies are education and sickness, because the judicious outlay of money in these two directions greatly helps to lessen the number of permanent paupers. In every Union in the kingdom there is a certain percentage of orphan or deserted children who are really dependent on the Guardians for their chance of making a livelihood for themselves. According as they are well or ill taught, and as care is or is not taken in putting them out into life, will be the probability that they will do well or ill when the start has once been made. Their training in the workhouse school will determine the degree in which they escape the taint of pauperism when they leave it, and the degree in which they escape it will in its turn determine whether they do decently well for themselves or come back as adults to the workhouse which they left as children. Yet upon nothing has there been more difficulty in inducing Boards of Guardians to spend money than upon the education of the children who have only the Guardians to look to. The dislike of the poor ratepayers to paying for giving a workhouse child advantages which they can barely secure for their own children is at the bottom of this. It is, after all, a natural feeling—a mere application to a particular case of the maxim that charity begins at home. Only by very slow degrees is it possible to convince those who thus reason that, if they want to escape future outlay, they had better consent to present outlay. The child of the poor ratepayer will suffer for want of proper schooling, but he will not suffer so much as the child who has been brought up in a workhouse. To the latter pauperism is the natural and accepted order of things; "the house" is his only notion of home. Consequently, unless education has given him a better ambition, it is to "the house" that he returns as a matter of course whenever he is in difficulties. There is scarcely any expenditure which would not be cheap to incur in order to break this pauperizing habit. The case of the sick is closely parallel to the case of the children. The one thing that true economy demands is that they should be got rid of as speedily as may be, and with the least possible chance of their having to return to the workhouse infirmary. This is a harsh-sounding but perfectly true way of describing the process of complete cure. As neither law nor public opinion will allow of sick paupers being killed off, they can only be got rid of by making them well. Great advances have been made of late years towards the recognition of this truth; but it is so easy for a workhouse infirmary to fall back into its old unsatisfactory state, that constant care needs to be taken in the choice of the Bushieh existed expenditure to the very set to the part of the best foldil.

the Guardians with whom it practically rests to say whether it shall be suited or unsuited to the purpose it has to fulfil.

It is impossible, of course, when dealing with so large an area as London to offer any specific suggestions as to the candidates who best deserve to be supported. But there is one piece of advice which may safely be given, and which, if it were generally followed, would exert a most beneficial influence on the composition of Boards of Guardians. It is simply to take some pains to distinguish between the candidates between whom the ratepayer has to make his choice, and then to vote for the candidates picked out. The great enemy to good local administration of all kinds is indifference. When a Board of Guardians is bad, the cause, nine times out of ten, is that no one has taken the trouble to make it better. The right men will not come forward as candidates because they feel no certainty that they will be supported even by the ratepayers who languidly wish for reforms, and when the list of candidates appears, the same ratepayers complain that there is no one in it whose name they know, and so it is not worth while to vote. It never occurs to them that among these unknown candidates there are at the worst some who are better than the rest, and that by taking some trouble to make inquiries it would be perfectly possible to discriminate between them. It is hard to say how much improvement might not be effected in local administration if the ratepayers would make a point of voting at every election. Their natural dislike to support men of whose policy they know nothing would soon cure their ignorance. It would mater little for whom they voted on the first or second occasion. As the habit became confirmed they would exercise their franchise more intelligently, and from taking a part in the voting to taking a part in the selection of candidates would be but a short and inevitable step.

#### THE LAMOUREUX CONCERTS.

CHARLES LAMOUREUX, the late conductor of the Grand Opera at Paris, has given two orchestral concerts at St. James's Hall which have been the cause of no little excitement in musical circles. It was understood that the conductor's aim was to introduce to the English public the works of French composers as yet unknown or but little known in England. We were told that we were as yet ignorant of the French school of music in the higher branches of the art, and that heretofore we had only heard the less artistic, though vastly pleasing, light music of Opéra Bouffe. It is a fact that there was an impression amongst the British musical public that the really thoughtful and artistic works performed at concerts were, with a few exceptions, principally of Teutonic origin, and that the symphonics of Beethoven, Mozart, and Schubert were works which had no equal in the French school; and, although we are not quite ready to abandon our opinion on the subject, we are quite willing to believe that French music is capable of giving something that really would rank with that class of music just referred to. With these feelings we hailed the advent of M. Lamoureux, with his works unknown to the English public, with an eager curiosity. The interest in the works of Berlioz, with an eager curiosity. The interest in the works of Berlioz, with an eager curiosity. The interest in the works of Berlioz, with which we sympathize completely, is now, it may be said, at its height, and, therefore, there is no wonder that more music of the same school should be welcome to the English musical public. M. Lamoureux had chosen an orchestra which numbered amongst its members some of the highest talent in England, and, from what we have heard of its performance, he had evidently given his best attention to the rehearsals and produced an effect which was completely satisfactory. With a fine orchestra, and a strong and accomplished conductor, the cause of French music in the higher branches of the

art was placed before us with every advantage. One thing, however, was wanting. M. Lamoureux was unfortunate in the choice of the works which he introduced in his programmes. The names of the composers were certainly sufficiently unknown in England to excite curiosity; but we regret to say that their works failed to create that interest which would have been accorded to them had they been of the value they were said to be. M. Lamoureux, in spite of his admirable orchestra and his efficient conductorship, can hardly be said to have advanced the cause which he had at heart. A glance at the programmes of the two concerts will show us that, with the exception of Berlioz and Saint-Saëns, M. Lamoureux has excluded those composers who would at least have been at once accepted as representatives of French music. We do not find in either programme the names of Gounod, Thomas, or Bizet, composers we should have been delighted to hear, and whose works have by no means been exhausted in England, and those works of the two other masters, Berlioz and Saint-Saëns, which M. Lamoureux has given, and which were of any value, have already been produced in England, and have met with the success which they deserved. Another mistake which M. Lamoureux, in common with many other French conductors, has fallen into, is that of exercising his discretion in cutting out certain portions of a work of a composer. We cannot speak with certainty, for we do not know whether the discretion was judiciously exercised in the particular instances which came under our notice at these concerts; but we cannot help thinking that it is hardly fair to a composer to excise one of the movements in his work as was done by M. Lamoureux in Lalo's Symphonie Espagnole in the case of the intermezzo, and in Massenet's Nouvelle Suite d'Orchestre, which was composed expressly for M. Lamoureux's concerts, in the case of the ballet. With these exceptions, however, the concerts, as far as performance was concerned, were a decided success, and M. Lamoureux deserves gre

The first of these concerts began with Berlioz's second overture to his opera of Benvenuto Cellini, entitled "Carnaval Romain." In his Memoirs Berlioz tells us that during the rehearsals of the Benvenuto under Habeneck the saltavello which is contained in the allegro of this overture was not played fast enough by the orchestra. "Quicker! quicker!" urged Berlioz; until the distracted conductor, striking the desk in his anxiety, broke his violin-how. "Mon Dieu, monsieur," said Berlioz, coolly; "you may break fifty bows, but that will not prevent the movement from being too slow. This is a saltavello." Habeneck, in a huff, dismissed the orchestra for that day. The Symphony in F by T. Gouvy, which followed, was a masterly composition, but seemed far from being a great work. This composer, who has met with a fair amount of success in Germany, cannot be said to rank amongst those musicians which we have already named as representative of French music in England at present, although it is evident from this work that he has studied to some purpose in the higher branches of his art. Lalo's Symphonie Espagnole is not a composition of the highest class, and, as we have said before, it was not given in its entirety. This work has already been given in England at the Crystal Palace Concerts, when Señor Sarrasate was the soloist. "Aurore," morecant for contralto and orchestra, by M. B. Godard, though admirably sung by Mme. Patey, was nevertheless but a dull production; and the "Rêverie du Soir," from the Suite Algérienne of M. Saint-Saēns, in spite of the excellent playing of Mr. Doyle in the viola solo, was far from interesting. This may have arisen from the fact that the other parts of the work were denied us and the "Rêverie du Soir," when heard with its surroundings may perhaps be of value as a musical work. Some further "Fragments" from a work of Massenet's entitled "Les Erinnyes" followed, and the concert closed with the Hungarian march from Berlioz's Faust. There were three vocal works in the programme sustained by Mm

The second concert began with the Nouvelle Suite d'Orchestre, by Massenet, already mentioned, which calls for no further notice. It was followed by an air from Spontini's opera Fernand de Cortez, sung by Mme. Brunet-Lafleur, and this was succeeded by the Ouverture de Sigurd, an unpublished opera by E. Reyer. This is gloomy and quasi-Wagnerian production and did not excite much attention. A Concerto in F Minor by Ch. M. Widor, which was the next piece, was to a certain degree interesting on account of the excellent playing of Mme. Montigoy-Remaury, who overcame difficulties of no ordinary kind as far as the execution of the work was concerned with a facility that was worthy of all praise. Of the work itself we cannot say that it ranks in the first class of composition of its kind, and we must protest against the absurd effects produced in the "Andante religioso." The principal subject is a chorale, each phrase of which is succeeded by a recitative-like passage in the orchestra, the effect being somewhat quaint; but when the orchestra take up the chorale with mutes on the stringed instruments, accompanied by the most florid and commonplace bravura on the pianoforte, the effect is incongruous, not to say absurd. In a concerto mutes are out of place as a rule, and in this particular instance the use they are put to is almost ludicrous. An air from Gluck's Armide followed, sung by Mme. Brunet-Lafleur, the grand composure of which served to place the wild extravagance of Saint-Saëns's remarkable Danse Macabre in strange relief. This Danse Macabre, the most important piece of either concert, is a work already well known in

England, but it has, we venture to say, never been better inter-

England, but it has, we venture to say, never been better interpreted than at M. Iamoureux's concert.

The author of the analytical programme, which seems, by the by, to be becoming in these days of programme music a most important item at a concert, ventures to give us "the lines" written by Henri Cazalis, "which M. Saint-Saens has sought to illustrate," and which, he says, "may be thus freely rendered in English:—

and which, he says, "may be thus treely rendered in English:—
Zig, zig, zig. Death keeping time strikes a tomb with his fist, and at
midnight plays a dance, zig, zig, zig, on his fiddle.

The winter wind whistles, and the night is dark. Sighs are heard in the
lindens, while skeletons gleam through the shadows, running and leaping
in their shrouds.

Zig, zig, zig. Each frisks about. We hear the rattle of the dancers'
hones.

But presto! all at once the circle is empty. They hurry, they fly-

In this we have, says the analyist, the "poetic" basis of M. Saint-Saëns's Poëme Symphonique, and a sufficiently grim one it is. We cannot say what object the analyst had in view in translating the words of M. Henri Cazalis into the bald version that he lating the words of M. Henri Cazalis into the bald version that he has given us; but certainly the Danse Macabre does not give us the impression that any words, especially these, are required to explain the music. This strange and original production is written for the orchestra and solo violin, whose first string is tuned to E flat instead of E natural, giving an unusually weird effect to the whole work. After a curiously extravagant use of his flat fifth, Death, the solo violin, leads off on a theme suggestive of the song in Boito's Mefistofele, "Son lo spirito che nega," which is utilized in a very masterly manner to the end of the piece, the orchestra acting as chorus to the solo violin, which was ably played by M. Sainton. The cock-crowing episode is used most delicately, and the whole of this remarkable piece is brought to an end with a few bars of plaintive wail from the solo violin.

After Mme. Montigny-Remaury had played three pieces for the pianoforte in admirable style, the concert closed with some detached portions from a ballet by Leo Delibes of an unimportant kind. The vocalists at these concerts were Mme. Brunet-Lafleur detached portions from a ballet by Leo Delibes of an unimportant kind. The vocalists at these concerts were Mme. Brunet-Lafleur and Mme. Patey. Of the former it is only necessary to say that, though possessing a fine voice, she is prone to the pernicious habit of the vibrato. Mme. Patey's sostenuto was a welcome relief, and of her singing generally there is no necessity to speak here. M. Lamoureux, in spite of his fine orchestra and masterly conductorship, has not yet, we fear, attained the object which we understood he came to England to accomplish. He must give us a yet higher class of music before we can concede the fact that French music has as yet been unrepresented in England. In fact, not one of the pieces as yet given by him is to be compared to those of French musicians which have already been produced and acknowledged as works of merit by us.

The performance of the Quintet in C Major, Op. 163, by Schubert, and the rendering of Beethoven's Sonata, Op. 101, by Mme. Schumann, have attracted notice at the Monday Popular Concerts. The Quintet, which was performed by Messrs. Joachim, Ries, Zerbini, Pezzo, and Piatti, was, as might be expected, given in the most masterly manner. Mme. Schumann, who was recalled after her performance of the Beethoven Sonata, played one of her husband's Fantasien-stücke, to the delight of her audience. The vocalist was Miss Santley, whose rendering of Mendelssohn's "Auf flügeln des Gesanges" was worthy of all praise.

### THE FRENCH LOAN.

THE French loan has been a great success. According to the statement made by the Finance Minister in the Chamber on Monday, it has been covered fifteen times over. In other words, France asked for a loan of a milliard of francs, or 40 millions sterling, and she was offered 600 millions sterling. Furthermore, there were actually lodged as a guarantee that whatever instalments fell due would be paid up, 100 millions sterling. It is true that the latter sum was not paid in cash. To prevent pressure upon the money market, and to facilitate large subscriptions, the French Finance Minister permitted bonds to be lodged instead of money in France; and, although that permission was not extended to England, the banks here which received the subscriptions readily paid the deposit when there was lodged with them sufficient secuin France; and, although that permission was not extended to England, the banks here which received the subscriptions readily paid the deposit when there was lodged with them sufficient security. In reality, therefore, the deposits consisted, either directly or indirectly, of bonds, and not of cash. Still, the fact remains that money's worth to the amount of 100 millions sterling was deposited as a guarantee that the subscriptions were made in good faith. M. Magnin described the loan as an electoral success, and in a sense no doubt it was. The French Government has been extremely anxious for a demonstration by the monied classes in favour of the Republic. It would seem that Republicans have been so often taunted by Monarchists and Imperialists with their isolation, and with the suspicion with which they are regarded by the propertied classes, that they had come to believe partially in the taunts themselves, and as a final disproof of them they eagerly invited a demonstration in favour of the Republic from the capitalist and speculative classes. The very conditions attached to the loan showed that this was their aim. When the late Emperor Napoleon borrowed, he seek subscriptions as low as 41, his object being to win over small investors to the institutions he had established. But the Republican Government fixed the minimum subscription as high

as 201., apparently either because it is sure of the small investor, or is more desirous at present of attaching the capitalist and speculative classes. Again, it declared that all subscriptions, whatever the amount, would have to submit to a proportionate reduction if the amount applied for exceeded the sum required. Furthermore, instead of inviting tenders, the price of the loan was fixed at 834 per cent. We saw here in London in the case both of the Metropolitan Board of Works loan and of the last Indian loan, how much the actual price may exceed the minimum, when a loan is put up to tender. The French Government deliberately deprived itself of such an advantage, and by fixing the minimum at a low price offered a premium to all subscribers. No doubt, this offer was to the benefit of all subscribers, but it redounded most to the benefit of the speculative and the capitalist classes. Lastly, subscribers were permitted, as we said above, to deposit any kind of security of the French Government instead of cash, as a guarantee that they would pay up the instalments of the loan as they fell due. At the same time those deposits were fixed as high as one-sixth of the nominal amount applied for. It was obviously much easier for a person in good credit or with large investments to lodge bonds than for a small investor, as the latter, if without bonds, would either howe to remain out of the new of his money while it was one

for a person in good credit or with large investments to lodge bonds than for a small investor, as the latter, if without bonds, would either have to remain out of the use of his money while it was on deposit, or would have to borrow and pay interest upon it.

The conditions fully answered the object with which they were framed, and the loan has shown that the capitalist and speculative classes have full confidence in the credit of France. But we confess, for our own part, we do not see the value of the demonstration. Whatever doubt may have existed formerly on the subject, the great Indemnity Loans proved once for all to the satisfaction of the whole would the high credit in which France stands. Those of the whole world the high credit in which France stands. Those loans, it will be remembered, were raised at a time when no settled form of government had been decided upon in France. M. Thiers did not take the title of President of the Republic, but All. There due to take the title of Fresheat of the Republic, but that of Chief of the State, and the majority of the Assembly then sitting was unquestionably Royalist. What form the government would ultimately take was still doubtful. In addition, the German armies were in possession of a large portion of the soil. And, finally, the Communist insurrection had only just been put down. The future of France was thus uncertain in the extreme, down. The future of France was thus uncertain in the extreme, and yet the success of the great Indemnity Loans was unquestionable and unquestioned. The truth is that, whatever institutions France may please to give herself, her resources are so vast, her wealth so great, and the honesty and good faith of her people so well proved, that she will always be able to borrow any amount she may require. And this new demonstration—if it is so to be called—is really not a demonstration in favour of the Republic or of any other institution, but a proof, hardly needed, that the credit of France stands extremely high in the money markets of the world.

But, in fact, the largeness of the subscriptions is, to a considerable extent, fictitious. The eagerness of the Government for a demonstration in favour of the Republic was well known, and all the great houses and leading capitalists who wished to stand well with the powers that be understood that they were expected to apply for much more than they were likely to obtain. The very fact that the subscriptions would be large, too, encouraged, and indeed induced, subscribers to apply for more than they wished to get. Those who judged, for example, that the subscriptions would cover the loan ten or fifteen times over, while for ten or fifteen times over. the subscriptions would cover the loan ten or fifteen times over, applied for ten or fifteen times more than they wished to get; so that, in fact, the vastness of the applications is illusory. But it has been said by the *Times* that, however this may be, nobody can question the fact that 100 millions sterling were deposited with the French Government or its agents as a guarantee that the subscribers would pay up whatever amount was allotted to them. And this has been put forward as a proof both of the high credit of France and the vast amount of money that is "going a-begging," as the phrase is—that is to say, that is waiting for eligible investment. But we have just been explaining that all, or nearly all, of these deposits were made in bonds. The French Government itself, as we have just explained, took any of its securities instead of cash on deposit, and the great took any of its securities instead of cash on deposit, and the great French banks advertised that they would make subscription for their shareholders and their customers on very easy terms. Even here in London the banker of the French Financial Agency lent their shareholders and their customers on very easy terms. Even here in London the banker of the French Financial Agency lent money on all kinds of securities to those who wished to apply for the loan. The amount of actual cash, then, that was lodged with the French Government and its agents was very small. And it is a complete mistake to suppose that those who lodged bonds were willing to sell these to take the new Redeemable Rentes. On the contrary they expected to get only a fifteenth or a twentieth part of the amount they applied for; and most of them would have been very much disappointed, and indeed very much inconvenienced, if they had been taken at their word, and required to accept the full amount for which they had applied. None know better than the subscribers that if securities to anything like the amount that was deposited had to be thrown upon the market in order to pay up the instalments, the depreciation of those securities would have been enormous. And they were very unlikely, therefore, to risk such depreciation. In real truth, the amount intended to be subscribed did not very greatly exceed the amount saked for by the French Government could not have obtained 100 or 200 millions sterling, if it had been for so much. Of course the terms would have had to be later than those offered last week, but the credit of France, as we have already observed,

is good enough to obtain any amount of money she may need. What we are now concerned with, however, is not what France could obtain under other circumstances, but what, as a matter of fact, was offered to her the other day. And the fact is that that amount is not measured by the value of the deposits, nor by anything like it. The deposits exceed very greatly the amount which the subscribers were prepared to lend.

e subscribers were prepared to lend.

And this explains why the loan has had so much smaller an French Government had required the deposits to be paid in actual cash, the gathering together of such vast amounts, and their lock-up even for a few days in the Treasury and its agencies, would have caused a severe pressure on the money market. But, as we have just been explaining, the money was not so locked up. In France very little money, indeed, was even asked for. And here in London it was just the same. Professedly the French Government required subscriptions in London to be accompanied by cash deposits. But as it designated one of the greatest of the joint-stock banks as its agent, that bank advanced to all persons in good credit who applied to it the amounts required, and the advances so made were merely book entries. An intending subscriber applied to the bank for a loan, let us say, of 10,000/. upon railway shares or debentures. The loan was credited to him in the books res or debentures. of the bank, and then the amount was transferred to the of the French Government. No money, in fact, passed to one or the other. In this way the surprise that has been excited by the extremely small influence of the loan upon the London

money market is explained.

As regards the conditions imposed by the French Government As regards the conditions imposed by the French Government we cannot think them wise in the interests of France. The loan is issued in the form of Redeemable Rentes, or, as we should call them, Terminable Annuities, and the interest is fixed as low as 3 per cent. But the credit of France, high though it be, is not yet good enough to enable her to borrow at par at 3 per cent. As we have just seen, she had, in fact, to fix the price as low as 83½ per cent. It seems to us that it would have been much wiser to have offered a higher rate of interest let us say 24 per cent and per cent. It seems to us that it would have been much wiser to have offered a higher rate of interest, let us say 3½ per cent., and to have borrowed at par. In this way she would in reality have to have norrowed at par. In this way she would in reality have been paying not more than she is paying now; and, if peace is preserved, and wealth continues to grow, and she does not add too rapidly to her debt, she would be able by and by to refund the loan at a lower rate of interest. As it is, she will have to go on paying nearly 3\frac{3}{4} per cent. as interest, and when the bonds are redeemed she will have to add a premium of 16\frac{3}{4} per cent. It further appears to us that it would have been better to have fixed a minimum price and allowed the ambiguous the backer with higher with higher the property of the same higher than the same and allowed the ambiguous to high a many higher. further appears to us that it would have been better to have fixed a minimum price and allowed the applicants to bid as much higher as they pleased. In this way the State would certainly have obtained more money than it has now got, and at the same rate of interest. This, however, would not suit the Bourse. The loan would, no doubt, have been taken up by a powerful syndicate, and would have been gradually placed by them. The profit would thus have been divided between the Government and two or three very great controllers. There were the Government and two or three very great the great the great state. been divided between the Government and two or three very great capitalists. Under the present circumstances the Government loses, and nearly all the subscribers gain. No doubt there is a better feeling distributed over a larger proportion; but the Treasury, nevertheless, is a loser. In other words, political considerations have outweighed financial. Lastly, it seems to us that it would have been far better to have followed more closely the Bonapartist example, and to have appealed more directly to the small investors—to have allowed, that is, subscriptions as low as 4l., and to have exempted such small subscriptions from all reduction. The moneyed classes, of course, would have grumbled. and to have exempted such small subscriptions from all reduc-tion. The moneyed classes, of course, would have grumbled, but the loan would have been placed amongst the lower classes, who would have been still more directly interested than they are at present in the stability of the institutions of the country. We have all seen within the last few years how wise the Napoleonic policy was in this respect; how an appeal to the small investors really did interest the mass of the people in the government of the country, and how enormously it has helped to create a conservative interest. In departing from this example create a conservative interest. In departing from this example we cannot but think that the Republican Government has made a

#### THE THEATRES.

MR. BOOTH'S engagement at the Princess's comes to an end M. BOOTH'S engagement at the Princess comes to an end to-night. We have recorded the opinion formed from studying all his performances during this engagement that he is an actor of the very highest rank, and to us his poetical and powerful Othello seemed to rank with the best of his performances. The representations of Shylock and Petruchio which he has been giving the past week are in some ways less satisfactory than presentations of Shylock and Petruchio which he has been giving during the past week are in some ways less satisfactory than what he has done before. To begin with, the plays have both to be somewhat ruthlessly cut down in order to admit of their being presented on the same evening. In the case of The Merchant of Venice much of the underplot, in the case of The Taming of the Shrew all of it, has to be sacrificed; and with the underplot goes of course the "induction" ard interlude of Sly. It is very difficult to guess what might be the precise effect of the presentation of The Taming of the Shrew with Sly retained, and with no more excision elsewhere than might be absolutely necessary. We have seen it played on the German stage in five acts, the Sly business being omitted, but the underplot, or rather the underplots, being retained. Here and there the result was, it must be confessed, a little tedious, but the tedium might have been avoided by a more judicious use of the pruning-knife; and, but for the passages which could have been easily excised, it was proved that the play was no less interesting and amusing to see upon the stage than it is to read. The comedy was duly insisted upon but was not exaggerated as it is in was duly insisted upon but was not exaggerated as it is in the somewhat over-farcical version given at the Princess's; while the general performance at the Dresden Hoftheater was, it need hardly be said, of a somewhat different calibre. The same thing may be said of the performance of The Merchant of Venice at the same house, in which Herr Jaffé—now, if we remember rightly, at the Vienna Theatre—played Shylock with the same intention which Mr. Booth seems to adopt.

This intention is if we are not mistaken more in second with

This intention is, if we are not mistaken, more in accord with the ancient than with the modern views of Shylock's character. It is not improbable that the savage and grotesque version of the part is more like that which was originally handed down from Shakspeare's time than is the rendering which lends Shylock the fine dignity of an outraged member of an oppressed race. Nor can there be much doubt, as we have pointed out on former occasions, that there is a great deal to be said for the newer reading, which seems to us to have the merit of giving more attraction and interest to the play. It was observed by that fine critic the late Mr. James Snedding that according to his attraction and interest to the play. It was observed by that fine critic the late Mr. James Spedding that according to his view, which inclined to the older reading, it is not Shylock, but Portia, who is, or ought to be, the central figure of the play. In the version presented at the Princess's the impression conveyed is that, if the other characters were played by first-rate actors, this view as to the non-supremacy of Shylock in the motion of the drama might be illustrated in an exceptionally interesting way, inasmuch as Shylock, while ceasing to enlist the sympathy of the audience is yet played by a next of the highest accomplish. audience, is yet played by an actor of the highest accomplishments and power. Unfortunately these conditions are not fulfilled, and the interest of the play is of course diminished. One has no right to be disappointed at Mr. Boeth's taking deliberately, as the result of the thought and study which he evidently gives to all he undertakes, a view of Shylock's character which happens to be different from one's own. One has a right, however, to be disappointed at the effect of Mr. Booth's thought and study being marred by his surroundings. Correct intonation, or at least correct aspirating, of the English language may fairly be demanded in the performance of a Shakspeatian play in a large London theatre; and it is unpleasant to note that in the matter of aspirating more than one performer of an important part in The Merchant of Venice was painfully at fault. But as to the whole representation of the play, apart from Mr. Booth himself, there is little to be said but "non ragionam di lor." Mr. Booth's performance of the Jew, granting all that we have suggested as to varying views of the character, seemed to us to show less of the genius which to our thinking he undoubtedly possesses than might perhaps have been expected; but much allowance may be made for an actor upon whom such a strain has been put by constant changes of sets and by the playing of two such sorts and by the playing of two such sorts. parts, and by the playing of two such parts as Shylock and Petruchio on the same night. Frequent changes of part were in themselves common enough within the memory of man, and we have always protested against the evil effects which may we have always protested against the evil effects which may result from an actor's playing the same part night after night for six months or more. But in the old days when Hamlet, Macbeth, Richard III., The Merchant of Venice, and Othello were played in more or less rapid alternation, the leading actor did not appear every night in the week, and it is an inevitably dangerous experiment to combine the old and the new system.

The production at the Princess's of The Merchant of Venice has been been seen in the princess's of the Merchant of Venice.

has been made the occasion of a protest which seems to us a little has been made the occasion of a protest which seems to us a little exaggerated against the traditional business assigned to Lancelot Gobbo; and the critic of "the leading journal" joining in this has made a rather amusing slip in exclaiming against Lancelot's presenting the back of his head instead of his chin to his "more than sand-blind, high-gravel-blind" father. The text runs thus. Gobbo the elder says, "Lord! worshipp'd might be be! what heard hast thou got; thou hast got wors hair on thy chin than than sand-blind, high-gravel-blind" father. The text runs thus. Gobbo the elder says, "Lord! worshipp'd might he be! what a beard hast thou got; thou hast got more hair on thy chin than Dobbin my fill-horse has on his tail." To which Lancelot replies, "It should seem then that Dobbin's tail grows backward; I am sure he had more hair of his tail than I have of my face when I last saw him." If these words do not point directly to the condemned "business," it would be instructive to learn what

the condemned "business," it would be instructive to learn what else they can mean.

In the two-act version of The Taming of the Shrew which follows The Merchant of Venice, Mr. Booth's success as Petruchio is, from his own point of view, complete. The grace, vivacity, and fine force of his acting can hardly be surpassed; and his performance is charged with a humour and wit which are at once strong and delicate. It may be doubted, however, whether the conception—adopted by the late Herr Dettmer among others—of Petruchio as a more burly person, a person whose sheer masculine strength, both of will and of body, overpowers Katherine, is not to be preferred to Mr. Booth's presentation of a witty, bustling, wilful cavalier, whose mastery is almost entirely a piece of accomplished acting. However this may be, Mr. Booth's assumption of the character is certainly amusing and attractive in a marked plished acting. However this may be, Mr. Booth's assumption of the character is certainly amusing and attractive in a marked degree, and is, it need hardly be said, distinguished by the singular grace of attitude and gesture which he has displayed in almo every part he has undertaken during this engagement. In the case of this play we willingly endorse the protests which has been made against the over-pantomimic business introduce

which, especially in the case of the blackened leg of mutton, is manifestly absurd, although it is not perhaps altogether inconsistent with Mr. Booth's rendering as opposed to the one we have suggested. If Petruchio's behaviour is throughout more a piece of fun than a serious resolve to outwit Katherine with her own weapons, he may just as well be excusably, if excessively, violent as set about all his extravagances in pure unreason. We look forward with the greatest interest to Mr. Booth's appearance in Othello with Mr. Irving, and we may add a hope that the conjunction of two such actors will not be confined to one play. The production of Michael Strogoff has been looked forward to with a certain curiosity by the public, but possibly the piece may not command in London the same success that attended it in Paris. It is a mere spectacular melodrama of the most invertebrate kind, a series of scenes that sometimes descend into mere dioramas, and which are scarcely connected.

piece may not command in London the same success that attended it in Paris. It is a mere spectacular melodrama of the most invertebrate kind, a series of scenes that sometimes descend into mere dioramas, and which are scarcely connected together at all. The improbabilities of the plot surpass all that is pardonable, even in melodrama. An aged mother is shot down before our eyes, reappears in the next act only to die in full daylight at the end of it, and finally is restored safe and sound to the bosom of her family. The hero is deprived of his eyesight with red-hot irons, but can see well enough when a little free rifle-shooting has to be done in a future scene. Rivers of naphtha are set on fire, and turned on, as from a tap, upon beleaguered cities. Special correspondents "interview" potentates of Central Asia at a moment's warning, and find the curse of Babel happily removed. But, in spite of all this, the piece might be a good melodrama, might lead breathlessly from one romantic extravagance to another, and might at least progress in one unflagging stream of interest. It does nothing of the kind, but in the absence of these things we are given gorgeous spectacle, a profusion of magnificent dances, processions, and bright garments, and a certain amount of good acting. The part of Michael Strogoff, the Imperial Messenger, who contrives, in the face of a thousand fantastic impossibilities, to bring the good news to Irkutsk, suits Mr. Charles Warner much better than some more ambitious and less sensational parts which he has lately attempted. Although much impeded by the results of his late accident, he acts with very considerable firmness and martial dignity of bearing, but is a little needlessly stiff at times, and not always careful to secure grace of pose. There is much that is careful and interesting in his acting, and the scenes between him and his mother were sometimes affecting. Mr. Fernandez is capital as the traitor. The mother was played with great spirit by Mrs. Hermann Vezin, who rallied the cowardl being exceedingly diverting, and the difference of character being accentuated in the mode which Mr. Bryon loves in his original comedies. Mr. Irish made a pleasing point by arriving at the post-house at the frontier on the back of a live donkey, which smiled at the audience as only a donkey can. The decorations of the piece, it is needless to say, are magnificent. The battle-field of Kolyvan, crowded with the bodies of the dead and wounded, and with a large "property" horse slain in the fore-ground, was little to our taste; but, on the other hand, the raft-scene on the river Angara is one of the most attractive and original pieces of land-scape that have been seen on the English stage. scape that have been seen on the English stage.

### REVIEWS.

### BENGALI AND CINGALESE VILLAGES.\*

CONTRIBUTIONS to the stock of Indian knowledge made by barristers elevated to the Anglo-Indian Bench have hitherto mostly referred to some department of Hindu or Mohammedan law. Sir W. Jones, besides writing elegantly on poetry and the drama, translated the Code of Manu and an Arabic Commentary drama, translated the Code of Manu and an Arabic Commentary on the Law of Inheritance. Sir Thomas Strange, once Chief Justice of Madras, compiled a very useful treatise on Hindu Law. Sir Francis Macnaghten, who must not be confounded with Sir William the unfortunate Envoy at Cabul, has left us his considerations on Hindu Law as current in Bengal. Sir Hyde East took another line, pleaded the cause of English education, and was one of the promoters of the Hindu College at Calcutta. The late Sir James Colville was the first Vice-Chancellor of the University of the same city; and one of the best works on Mortgages in the local Courts is the production of an ex-judge now living. But Sir John Phear is, we think, the first barrister-judge who has endeavoured to appropriate to himself some portion of a field generally considered as the exclusive inheritance of civilians or of independent Englishmen familiar with agricultural and rural life, owing to long residence in the interior. And we are bound to say that the late Chief Justice of Ceylon shows a clear apprehension of the various interests existing in the soil; of the nature of real, or, in Anglo-Indian phrase, of immovable, property; of

leases, occupancy rights, partitions, shares and inheritances, and all the bewildering technicalogy which misleads pamphleteers into thinking that the Bengal rent laws could be imported bodily into thinking that the Bengal rent laws could be imported bodily into Ireland and would appease the Land League. Nor has the author shown himself unequal to the task of describing the prominent features of the social life of a Bengali peasant, as it appears, not to the judge on the Bench, plunged into the mysteries of a law-suit about the diluvion of a fine estate, or the truth or falsehood of a case of adoption, but to the tourist or sportsman who wanders, gun in hand, through the dense foliage and the narrow and clayey paths of the Amirabad and Dowlutpore villages. In truth, the amount of local knowledge nicked up, either in the In truth, the amount of local knowledge picked up, either in the court-houses, or in walks and drives, or at second-hand from native correspondents, is abundant and generally accurate. The verna-cular terms are not distorted and mangled, and, with few exceptions, they might have been incorporated in the exhaustive report of the Commissioner of a crack division about agriculture, tenantrights, settlements, and the prevention of famine. And the analogies as well as the differences between Ceylon and Bengal are clearly and concisely drawn.

clearly and concisely drawn.

But the work might have been improved by some excisions. The introductory chapter only serves to demonstrate that the author has some acquaintance with geology and science. Remarks on stone implements, cave men, river-drift men, the neolithic pre-Kelts, and the non-Aryan peoples, can only by the most ingenious special pleading be connected with the villages of Eastern or Central Bengal. It is a notorious fact that village communities such as Thomason consolidated and Sir H. Maine describes have not been found on the Lower Ganges during the last hundred years and more. Whether they ever existed in the shape in which we find them in the Doab of Hindostan, and, if they did, how they were disintegrated, are questions which speculative writers may love to discuss. But, for all practical purposes, the coparcenary tenures of the village had ceased to exist before Hastings, or Shore, or Cornwallis took the settlement of the Bengal revenue or Shore, or Cornwallis took the settlement of the Bengal revenue in hand. Men of the same caste and occupation very naturally crowd together in Bengal. In some places the population is exclusively Mohammedan; other villages are occupied by the pure Hindu agricultural castes, the Kopalis, Kaiverts, and Teors; now and then Chamars or leather-cutters, and the Chandals or men of no caste at all, occupy the whole land; and in some villages there are the separate quarters of the Brahmans, of the weavers, of the fishermen; Raman bustes, Tantimara, and Militaryana. there are the separate quarters of the Brahmans, of the weavers, of the fishermen; Bamon bustee, Tanti-para, and Jeliya-para. Traces of village organization also survive. There may be, at the service of the whole village, a barber and a blacksmith, a potter, a schoolmaster, and a priest. Possibly, too, there is a headman, known as mandal, or mriddha, who is appealed to in social or family squabbles, who gets up active or passive resistance to any advance of rents, and on whose advice the police are either sent for or kept at a distance, according as it may be politic to detect or to conceal crime. But it would be impossible out of these disjecta membra even in theory to constitute an ideal out of these disjecta membra even in theory to constitute an community of co-parcenary tenants. Then, apart from the author's profitless excursions into ancient rocks and glaciers in connexion with such a modern formation as the silt and mud of Bengal, we with such a modern formation as the silt and mud of Bengal, we regret to notice a most unjust aspersion on the departmental know-ledge and the linguistic attainments of the modern race of civilians. "It is a very exceptional thing," we are told, "for one of them to possess a real command of the colloquial vernacular"; and again, "Scarcely any one, thus, is able to converse easily with the ordinary ranks of the people"; and then we are warned about the awkwardness, coldness, and abruptness of the Englishman. "He really knows next to nothing of the habits, standpoints, and modes of thought of the mass of the people." Now, we have often been told that English barristers think little of the legal attainments of a civilian magistrate or Sessions judge, and that the modes of thought of the mass of the people." Now, we have often been told that English barristers think little of the legal attainments of a civilian magistrate or Sessions judge, and that the latter retort, as they are entitled to do, by telling the barrister that he knows nothing of the facts and feelings to which he is desirous of applying his ordinary English law. But this is almost the first time we have ever known a judge of the class and rank to which Sir J. Phear belongs, impute to the governing body an absolute ignorance of one of the primary qualifications for executive and judicial office. The author of this hasty criticism in reality owes one-half of his own knowledge to the labours of civilians who, while he was sitting in appeal, have, in courts of first instance, unravelled complicated family feuds, tracked crime through masses of deceitand dishonesty to its authors, given the pith and point of quaint social customs, explained the relative position of superior landlords, of middlemen, and of tenant proprietors, and, without the aid of dictionary or interpreter, afforded judicial sanction to the resistance of Naboth against the unjust usurpations of Ahab. A score of times, we will venture to say, must Mr. Justice Phear have been indebted to his civilian colleagues on the same Bench for the exact significance of a term which was quite beyond the experience of a young native advocate fresh from the Calcutta University, or for the precise value of a piece of evidence which experience of a young native advocate fresh from the Calcutta University, or for the precise value of a piece of evidence which was meaningless or perplexing to a judge trained at Westminster. Then Sir John Phear is surely not ignorant of the strict vernacular tests which have long been imposed on all candidates, even after their active service has commenced, and which are indispensable conditions to their investment with higher powers and independent action. It is really lamentable to find a gentleman of obvious experience and high attainments lending himself to the reproduction of these stale and exploded calcumies. What would reproduction of these stale and exploded calumnies. What would have been his own feelings on the perusal of "Life in the Mofussil" or "Paddling in the Paddy-fields," written by a civilian

<sup>\*</sup> The Aryan Village in India and Ceylon. By Sir J. B. Phear. London: Macmillan & Co. 1880.

or staff officer in civil employ, in which every ludierous or malicious aneedote of the credulity or ignorance of English barristers and judges had been reproduced. We can assure him that there are still plenty such to be picked up in Anglo-Indian circles, beginning with the hope expressed by Elijah Impsy and his colleagues on landing at Colvin's Ghaut, that the coolies of Calcutta would be clothed in shoes and stockings six months after the establishment of the old Supreme Court. Even in the comprehensive and well-reasoned judgments of the Privy Council there occur expressions at which collectors or magistrates may lawfully smile. We are, however, ready to concede to Sir John Phear that it would require "a real command of the colloquial vernacular" to render into correct and idiomatic Urdu or Bengali such a sentence as the following:—"The differentiation of the such a sentence as the following:—"The differentiation of the property-less worker from the leisured capitalist commenced."
We are glad to turn from making the sentence of the commence of th We are glad to turn from making these necessary strictures to the worthier portions of the book. In one of Marryat's novels a conceited midshipman is told by a rough captain of the old school that a youngster has no business with "fine feelings," and that he had better get rid of a cartload of these incumbrances at the masthead. In the same strain we should suggest to any English barrister appointed to high office on the Bench or in Council in India, that he should commence work by throwing overboard all India, that he should commence work by throwing overboard an his English notions about devolution, settlement, entail, leases with conditions and limits, and absolute and unqualified ownership in the soil. And this, we are glad to admit, Sir John Phear has effectively done. After a brief sketch of the Cornwallis Settlement and the legislation of 1793, he gives forcible expression to opinions which are the texts and canons of every experienced administrator—that absolute and unqualified ownership in landed property is very rarely found; that a Zemindar in Nuddea has no analogy with an English squire; that half-a-dozen middlemen have rights under a Zemindar or superior holder which are perfectly capable of definition; and that, if real ownership is to be sought for anywhere, it is in the holding of the Jotedar or Ryot, though it is not very easy to draw the exact line of separation. Equally clear and forcible is the explanation about the division of sahares in any great Hindu property. Every member of an un-divided family is born with a right to some portion of the patrimonial estate. But as families grow and spread, domestic causes of quarrel multiply, and patriarchal rule becomes unbear-able. Then separation takes place. First, the various shares of able. Then separation takes place. First, the various shares of the rental are collected, not by one general manager but by the heads of the various branches. This is productive of more disagreements, and is a constant source of perplexity to the actual cultivator, who may pay 7½ annas of the whole rupee to one proprietor, 4½ annas to another, and 2 annas to a third, making up sixteen annas in all; or, as we should put it, the twenty shillings in the pound. Lastly, when everybody's patience is exhausted, and the shareholders and their tenants may have gone the round of the criminal, revenue, and civil courts, a final partition in the land takes place. And the same process of joint collection, separate collection, and ultimate division of the diminished inheritance, takes place in each succeeding generation. It is not surprising that, in the absence of mineral wealth and manufactures, the fertility of the Gangetic Delta, the more than Irish attachment of the Hindu to paternal acres, and the fecundity of the races, should lead to over-population and to a rate of seven hundred to eight hundred inhabitants in one square rate of seven hundred to eight hundred inhabitants in one square mile. We remark, by the way, that the author is fond of using the term mouzah to express a village in Bengal. Mouzah, we must remind him, is a term of revenue and law. The popular must remind him, is a term of revenue and law. The popular and vernacular term for the actual village is gram or ganw, and it is the same as gama, which the author found in Ceylon. An Indian peasant in the field or bazaar, if questioned about his mouzah as a place of residence, would be as amazed as a modern gamekeeper who might be told that his young master was to be taken out to shoot conies instead of rabbits. Again, Ryots are scarcely in the habit of eating "tiffin," which is a meal almost peculiar to Anglo-Indians. What Ryots do eat on a journey, or about 4 o'clock P.M., or when they have no time to make a fire-place and cook their rice, is jalpān, or a snack of some sort of sweetmeats or parched rice. A halfpenny-worth of these dainties and a whiff of tobacco will go a long way to satisfy a hunery place and cook their rice, is jalpān, or a snack of some sort of sweetmeats or parched rice. A halfpenny-worth of these dainties and a whilf of tobacco will go a long way to satisfy a hungry boatman, palanquin-bearer, or beater. Occasionally, too, the author uses a local term with perfect accuracy, but neglects to bring it home to English ears. For instance, he describes a faction fight or rather a contest between the tenants of two Zemindars, one of whom had a right to the rents of ten annas, or not quite two-thirds of the whole, while the other had the right to the remaining six annas. We gather that, in this case, the division of the lands had actually taken place, and the dispute related, not to fractional shares of rents in the same acreage, but to distinct plots of land with their metes and hounds. age, but to distinct plots of land with their metes and bounds acreage, but to distinct plots of land with their metes and bounds. And then comes a sentence clear as crystal to an active magistrate in Bengal, but a perfect enigma to an English landlord or legislator:—"A great effort had been made by the Raja's people to make Asan give up his joté to Kalidas or to enter into zimma relations with the Raja." Asan and Kalidas are the two zimma relations with the Raja." Asan and Kalidas are the two Ryots at feud. The jotë is the tenancy of one of them, the subject of dispute; and the meaning of the last part of the sentence is that, if Asan would not surrender his actual tenancy to Kalidas, he might at least be brought round to acknowledge the Raja as his superior lauddord, to pay rents to him and not to his proper owner, and to look to the Raja for protection and countenance. In other words, the landholder, rival of the Raja, was to be the loser either

by his own tenant ceding actual possession of his few acres to another man who was not his tenant, or else by his paying them to a rival superior to whom nothing was due. If there is no fixity of tenure in this, there is at least something not very far removed from "free and easy sale." The dispute ended, as so many of these agrarian disputes easy sale. The dispute ended, as so many of these agraran disputes do, by Asan being wounded in the hand, and his brother, one Manick, losing his life. Various other incidents are recorded in these pages, showing how Bengal Ryots eat and dress, amuse themselves, are robbed and plundered, and die before their time. There is a sketch of the crime of Dacoity, or gang robbery, where men dis-guise their faces with ashes, just as they blacken them in Ireland, ransack the house, search the chests for jewels, dig up the floor for rupees, ill-treat the women, and make off with their booty. There is a story of the savage revenge taken by some Hindus on a young Mohammedan for tarnishing the family honour. And there is quite enough to remind us that there is still in India a large store of materials left which can be worked up into an integral or integral of materials left which can be worked up into an interesting volume by men who will take the trouble to use their eyes and to collect something beyond stale stories about hookahs and nautches, days on elephants, and nights at mess.

No two tropical countries, physically, can be less alike than Bengal and Ceylon. Both countries certainly have abundance of rain and heat. Cocoanut trees and rice flourish in both. But in Ceylon the country undulates, to say nothing of high ranges of mountains; and huge tracts are one vast jungle on which the axe and the plough seem to make no impression. Yet the author selects similarities as well as differences in the land tenures. There selects similarities as well as differences in the land tenures. There is a headman in a Cingalese village just as in Bengal. There are village carpenters, blacksmiths, and washermen. Land is held by men who pay their quota of the produce, as well as by men who render some definite service to the chief. But, then, in Ceylon service is the usual tenure and payment of produce the exception, while in Bengal it is exactly the reverse. In Ceylon there are none of those sub-infeudations which interpose half a dozen charges between the actual cultivator and the Zemindar. Population is scanty. During the dominion of the Portuguese money payments were unknown: and even in our own times men have lation is scanty. During the dominion of the Portuguese money payments were unknown; and even in our own times men have been compelled, under old precedents, to give several days of unpaid labour to repair the roads. The author states distinctly that the hideous custom of polyandry, though discouraged by legislation, is still in force. We have besides all this the reprint of an ingenious lecture, showing how the joint Hindu family may have expanded into the village; and, if we can forget that Sir John Phear has gone out of his way to cast aspersions on the members of a service to which India is even more indebted than to its able and independent Bar, this volume does credit to experience acquired as independent Bar, this volume does credit to experience acquired as Puisne Judge in the High Court of Calcutta and as Chief Justice in Ceylon.

#### EGYPTIAN MYTHOLOGY.\*

SINCE the time of Moses, not to speak of Herodotus, the wisdom of the Egyptians has attracted the curiosity of all inquirers into early religion. The great age of Egyptian civilization, the imposing splendour of the temples and the ritual, the very grotesqueness of the mysteries, and the reticence of the priests, encouraged the belief that Egypt inherited some marvellous tradition, and was in possession of some intimate theosophistic knowledge. These pretensions were partly destroyed when De Brosses published (1760) his little book, Du Culte des Dieux Fétiches, on Paralièle de Vancienne Religion de l'Egypte avec la Religion actuelle de Nigritie. De Brosses certainly introduced the word "Fétichisme" without attaching to it any very definite scientific signification. It has been so much abused, as Mr. Max Müller has pointed out, in recent speculations that we prefer not to use "Fétichisme" without attaching to it any very definite scientific signification. It has been so much abused, as Mr. Max Miller has pointed out, in recent speculations that we prefer not to use the term at all. But De Brosses established, as we venture to think, one essential fact. He showed that, among contemporary savage tribes a direct worship sans figure, as he says, without symbolism of any kind, was paid to animals and vegetables (Du Culte des Dieux Fétiches, p. 182). As to the origin of a practice which seems so strange to civilized men, he wrote in his style of vivacious common sense, "on n'est pas obligé de rendre raison d'une chose où il n'y en a point; et ce seroit, je pense, assez inutilement qu'on en chercheroit autre que la crainte et la folie dont l'esprit humain est susceptible; et que la facilité qu'il a dans de telles dispositions à enfanter des superstitions de toute espèce." De Brosses concluded that the Egyptian worship of plants and animals was also originally sans figure and direct, though an educated and mystic priesthood explained, by elaborate cosmical, moral, and spiritual allegories, the rude forms of worship which they inherited from a remote, a savage, and a childishly superstitious past. And this is the explanation of a great part of Egyptian mythology, to which modern anthropological science inclines. We have to distinguish, as far as possible, the wild early animal worship from the late allegorical interpretations, and from the symbolical additions to ritual.

This is the system of the anthropologist, of the historical inquirer; but mythologists of another school still reject the hint of De Brosses, and look everywhere for the figure, for the symbol, which they suppose to be, not the later priestly interpretation, but

<sup>\*</sup> Le Paultéen Egypties. Par Paul Pierret, Conservateur du Musée Egyptien du Louvre. Paris: Ernest Le Roux. 1881.

\*\*A Boon of the Beginnings. By Gerald Massey. London: Williams & Norgate. 1881.

the original essence of the Egyptian worship of animals and plants. This search for the figure, the symbol, is the method of M. Paul Pierret, the Keeper of Egyptian Antiquities at the Louvre. M. Pierret starts from the theory, which we think somewhat too neat and too superficial, that religion begins with "Fetichisme," with adoration of winds, seas, rivers, hills, and ferocious animals; passes to Sahéisme, worship of the heavenly host; and then reaches Polytheism. "Fetichism, Sabaeism, Polytheism, these are the three stages of religious thought." But, says M. Pierret, the Egyptians, though they doubtless started from Fetichism (in which he includes the worship of animals), have left us no traces of their passage through this early stage of speculation:—"Malheureusement, les Egyptiens semblent s'être fait une loi de nous dérober leurs premiers tâtonnements en toutes choses, et leurs he includes the worship of animals), have left us no traces of their passage through this early stage of speculation:—" Malheureusement, les Egyptiens semblent s'être fait une loi de nous dérober leurs premiers tâtonnements en toutes choses, et leurs monuments les plus anciens nous les montrent déjà parvenus à l'idée monothéiste. . . . Ils sont monothéistes sous une apparence polythéiste." And M. Pierret quotes Champollion Figéac, "C'était un monothéisme pur, se manifestant extérieurement par un polythéisme symbolique." The Egyptians undeniably worshipped a host of animals, and worshipped them, to Plutarch's surprise, directly and without disguise (De Iside et Osiride, 379, 30). "The Greeks assign certain animals to the Gods, but the people among the Egyptians worship the animals themselves." Plutarch gives the current explanations, such as the myth that the gods hid themselves in animal shapes in dread of Typhon; or, again, that Osiris divided the world into bands, each of which had an animal for its symbol. Now this very division of races into stocks of kinship, each of which has an animal or plant for its symbol, prevails at this moment among Thlinkeets, Red Indians, such as Dacotahs, Bechuanas, Ashantees, Australians—in fact, in Asia, Africa, America, and the great continental island. Further, Plutarch informs us that the Egyptians who worshipped this or that fish, or other animal, declined to eat it, exactly as the contemporary savages of the world refuse to make food of the animal which supplies their family badge. Thus only the Lycopolitæ (Wolves) would in Plutarch's time eat the sheep, which was a great god in Egypt, and while the Dogs (Cynopolitæ) at the fish called Oxyrhyncus, the Fishes (people of the town named after the Oxyrhyncus) were in the habit of annoying the Cynopolitæ by sacrificing dogs and eating them with much solemnity. Here then we have, even in the Egypt of Plutarch's time, undeniable marks of the savage institutions. Among other sacred animals, in addition to those we have spoken of,

sams figure, and decorate their shrines with his skull.

In spite of all this evidence, which it really seems hard to misunderstand, M. Pierret persists in believing that the animal worship of Egypt was all pure symbolism. With M. Chabas, he remarks that "the innumerable gods of Egypt are only different aspects or attributes of the single type of godhead." He thinks it unreasonable to suppose, and contrary to the teaching of history to believe, that monotheism and direct animal worship could coexist in the same country at the same time. He will not have it said "that the same people which looked on the divinity as inaccessible, invisible, of hidden name and form unknown, could adore hawks, crocodiles, lionesses, cats, and cows."

hawks, crocodiles, lionesses, cats, and cows."

Now surely, if history has one certain lesson, it is that stages of Now surely, if history has one certain lesson, it is that stages of thought do not abolish each other as they come on, but overlap and intermingle with each other. Only ten years ago certain Irish of the West coast were worshipping a certain formless stone idol. Practices which M. Pierret would call "fetichistic," or even polytheistic, have been common in the history of modern Scotch and English rural districts. Just as the age of iron does not abolish that of bronze, just as bronze does not abolish flint weapons, so the monotheism of philosophers, priests, and the educated classes coincides in time and space with copious survivals of ruder creeds among the people. Serpents are still sacrificed in Brittany on St. Annes Day, and orthodoxy coexists in Russia with the most degraded forms of "fetichism," including bear-worship.

M. Pierret, being unable to take this view of the evolution of religion, is obliged to maintain that animals appeared to be wor-

M. Pierret, being unable to take this view of the evolution of religion, is obliged to maintain that animals appeared to be worshipped in Egypt merely as symbols of the various divine attributes:—"Ces animaux, employés comme symboles, sont devenus sacrés par ce seul fait, qu'ils ont eu l'honneur de servir de vêtement à la peusée religieuse." Nothing can be more explicit; but it would have been difficult to get the worshippers of the wolf, sheep, or oxyrhyneus to agree with M. Pierret, to eat their own Totems, and leave the Totems of their neighbours uneaten. The views of M. Pierret might have been held by a bighly-educated and refined Egyptian priest, a monotheist who was determined to take the articles of his Church in a non-natutal sense, and who knew nothing of direct animal worship sans figure in Africa, Asia, America, Europe, and Australia. But swe do not think that modern comparative students of religion will be convinced by M. Pierret's theory that monotheism, polytheism, and retichism cannot possibly coexist, and that the oxyrhyneus, cat, crocodile, and the rest, are and always were pure symbols of the attributes of one

omnipotent deity. That deity in M. Pierret's opinion is, as will have been anticipated, the sun:—

Toute la mythologie egyptienne réside dans ce qu'on peut appeler le drame 

son individualité et de sa toute-puissance.

All the local and other names of gods are (we presume) names of the sun. Possibly this may have been the contention of the priests. When the Brahmins want to convert a set of native animal-worshippers, they observe that Brahma once took the shape of their animal, and that the name of their animal is one name of Brahma. This ingenious device of "the same concern" was probably practised by the priests of Egypt. But even the ingenuity of the symbolic school of interpreters may be checked when they are asked to explain why the worshippers of the one god under a local name waged war with all the neighbouring local types of the god, sacrificed them, and ate them. Either the explanation is false, or it must be extended to similar practices among all savages. Emus, sacrificed them, and ate them. Either the explanation is false, or it must be extended to similar practices among all savages. Emus, wombats, coyotes, 'tortoises, hares, ants, frogs, kangaroos, bears, toads, prairie dogs, reeds, bulrushes, crestless cockatoos, wolves, tobacco, maize, sardines, lizards, black snakes, grasshoppers, red deer (in Ireland), and, in short, almost all the beasts in the Zoological Gardens, must be "employés comme symbolés, et devenus sacrés par ce seul fait qu'ils ont eu l'honneur de servir de vêtement à la pensée religieuse." But, then, these creatures are worshipped by races not yet in what M. Pierret calls the polytheistic stage of religion, still less in the monotheistic stage. This shows the difficulty of keeping one explanation for Egypt and another for the animal worship of the rest of the world.

M. Pierret has led us into serious matter. Mr. Messey helps the

M. Pierret has led us into serious matter, Mr. Massey helps the brow of austerity to unbend. In two huge quartos of twelve hundred pages we find him seeking the origin of all human things in Egypt. Extracts alone can do justice to Mr. Massey's method. He is an evolutionist, he says, and does not boggle at the animal in Egypt. Extracts alone can do justice to Mr. Massey's method. He is an evolutionist, he says, and does not boggle at the animal descent of man. But the Egyptians got away with a long lead from the rest of humanity. "If we find that each road leads back from Egypt," Egypt is "the common model, the common kinship, and the common centre." Mr. Massey proves that Maori and English are connected with Egyptian, by philological arguments. Thus (English) Meskins, "By the Mass," mass wafer (Egyptian), Meskin, "place of new birth," mes, "kind of cake." (English), Mobile, "the mob"; (Egyptian), Mhuli, "humble." (English), Monument; (Egyptian), Men, "to fix." (English), Mart, "cowfair"; (Egyptian), "Mer-cow." Mart, cow-fair is about as good as anything in this scientific philological exercise of Mr. Massey s. But here is an example by no means bad. "Linn (Keltic), a deep still pool; Egyptian, Renn, virgin pure." Linn is generally used of a roaring waterfall; Burns's despairing lover "spak o' louping ower a linn." But how could Mr. Massey omit Rein (German), pure; Egyptian, Renn, virgin pure? That would have been much neater and closer than the Keltic, linn, and Mr. Massey is welcome to make future use of the suggestion. This, again, is not bad—(English), letter; Egyptian, Ret, to "engrave, figure, write." But Mr. Massey (who seems not to care about Greek) will hardly beat this—(English), pegma, "a moving pageant"; (Egyptian), peh, "glory," Khema, "shrine." He has another pegma, "bill of advertisement fixed up at ancient pageants"; (Egyptian) p-ka-ma, the call to come, But if we have a favourite, among Mr. Massey's philological diversions, if there is one splendid illustrious blunder, it is this:—"Atum in one character is the setting sun; he sets from the land of life. He is the sun of Autumn, to which season he has bequeathed his name." It is fair to say that Mr. Massey knows some of his words to be derived from Latin and Greek.

Perhaps enough has now been said about Mr. Gerald Massey. He finds in the "Tom-toddy," or tad

Perhaps enough has now been said about Mr. Gerald Massey. He finds in the "Tom-toddy," or tadpole, "an image of Tum"! Once more, "the cat being a type of Kêd, and a name also of the fiddle, may have a serious bearing on the rhyme of

Hei, diddle diddle, The Cat and the Fiddle,

and the Cow that jumped over the Moon may be the Cow-goddess of Ursa major, Ked, who was anterior to, and higher in heaven than, Luna." With a fine knowledge of Celtic (or Keltie), Mr. Massey hints that "the Khen, as seatarers, may also have had a special territory (Tir) in Cantyre, as well as in Kent and Segont." Quite as probable, we should say. Here is a passage full of fine promiscuous philology:—

read very widely indeed, and this is the result of his reading. His book is simply stuffed full of scientific plums like these we have picked out. His volumes are beautifully printed, and Egypt never before produced a jest so monumental and colossal.

#### SWINTON'S INSECT VARIETY.

IN no department of knowledge has a more conspicuous advance been witnessed by the present generation than in the scientific study of entomology. The discovery in unforeseen profusion and variety of fossil insects, extending to deposits of early fusion and variety of fossil insects, extending to deposits of early date, has given to our ideas of insect organization a range, both in time and in geographical distribution, wholly undreamt of till within the last few years. It has also enabled us to determine the characteristics and the affinities of insect life at successive periods of development, and to show their connexion through unbroken sequence with the familiar forms of our own day. Concurrently with this calling up from the dead, if we may so speak, of a wholly unknown realm of life, there has been an unparalleled amount of microscopic work dealing with the anatomy, the histology, and the functional constitution of insects the most specifically distinct. The whole science has thus undergone little less than a distinct. The whole science has thus undergone little less than a distinct. The whole science has thus undergone fittle less than a revolution. No longer set in a corner as a study apart by itself, fitted only for minds as petty as the objects they pottered over with pocket-lens and pill-box, it has established itself in organic contact, on the one hand with geology, and on the other with biology. The functions assigned to insects in forwarding the process of fertilization have made good the extent and significance of the debt incurred by the vegetable kingdom on the part of this minutest of the animal orders. And in regard to morphology, metamorphism, and other occult laws of the living organism, it is to insect life in its mysterious changes and its inexhaustible profusion that we have most hopefully to look if we would penetrate to the inner secrets of nature. Nor is it in their anatomical or muscular functions only that the various insect tribes are able to throw light upon the affinities of widely separate classes of animated beings; in their habits, their modes of intelligence and action, singly or in common, their kinds and degrees of instinct, they supply lessons for which the thoughtful naturalist is ever on the watch. In their modes of propagation and their geographical distribution, involving intricate questions process of fertilization have made good the extent and signifiand their geographical distribution, involving intricate questions

and their geographical distribution, involving intricate questions of climate, vegetation, and other physical conditions, there is, above all, a field of boundless interest for every student of biology. To make clear the path towards the full and thorough treatment of a subject so wide, the specialist must needs be called in as a pioneer. On his labours depend the facts upon which have to be raised the broad generalizations which constitute science. And to all who bring to this preparatory task the requisite skill, patience, and accuracy of observation, a degree of gratitude is due which may well make us tender towards shortcomings in regard to philosophical method, logical arrangement, and other qualities which bespeak the mind of the master. As a work of value in the secondary sense implied in this comparison we gladly instance Mr. A. H. Swinton's recent Insect Variety; its Propagation and Distribution. His investigations have been directed, as his title-page explains, to the "odours, dances, colours, and music in all grasshoppers, cicadæ, and moths; beetles, leafinsects, bees and butterflies; burs, flies and ephemerae"; and he aims also at "exhibiting the bearing of the science of entomology on geology." The programme of study thus laid down is comprehensive enough to open up many of the problems most interesting to the entomologist. The author shows himself in every page a careful and indefatigable observer, having been urged on from boyhood by an intense devotion to the hunt for moths and butterflies—a pursuit "much fostered by the glow of charming colours, an inhorn love of sopert, and having been urged on from boyhood by an intense devotion to the hunt for moths and butterflies—a purenit "much fostered by the glow of charming colours, an inborn love of sport, and perfect rage for novelties." His imagination still glows with the reminiscences of the early mysteries of the butterfly-net, with its accompaniments of "caterpillar-rearing and chrysaliadigging, sallow beatings in the spring, and patient watchings at sugared tree trunks, ivy, flowers, and street lamps at autumn," with other expedients employed to obtain the delicate scale wings of Lepidoptera. Such keen and active sympathy with nature soon led to the discovery of novelties which brought him the thanks of correspondents at home and abroad. Summer tours to insect haunts in England and the Scottish Highlands enlarged and enriched his stores. Above all, a long-cherished dream of insect haunts in England and the Scottish Highlands enlarged and enriched his stores. Above all, a long-cherished dream of Northern Italy and the leafy gorges of the Tyrol and Rhône Valley was at length realized in a trip to that paradise of the insect fauna, poor only in comparison with the virgin bush of tropical lands. Whilst for others Italy has her sunny skies, her classic and medieval memories, her treasuries of painting, sculpture, poetry, and music, for him she brought forth the summer Cicade drumming among the boughs, the golden wasp (Scolia hortorum) laxily wheeling around the tufted fountain, the sacred Scarabei, "yet rolling in the ravines their miniature globes, as the Egyptians imagined, to procreate." There were to be found ant-lions and trap-door spiders; fireflies flashed nightly along the rivers, florid species of butterflies, Charares and Danais, fluttered in chosen spots, bespeaking in their birth somewhat of the warm breath of the African sirocco, and perpetuating the life of the heated Ter-

tiary time, which survives in numerous insect specimens in the palatial museum at Marseilles.

The first and most absorbing object of the author's eager quest was the Cicada. Primed full at starting with the poetic notices of this almost fabulous insect which abound, not in the Greek and Latin classics only, but in the poetry of all nations, his head seems to have been fairly turned as he drew near to the land of promise. His style of writing, deficient from the first in sobriety and self-control, here breaks into a strain of rhapsodical sound and fury which defies every effort to render it into sober prose. In the gardens of the Palazzo Giusti, in the land of Virgil and the city of Catullus, on the 5th of June, he "espied the first nymph of Hæmatodes crossing his path, besmeared with the soil from whence it had just risen." Having learnt from his English classics to regard the Cicada as the herald and harming the property of the control of his engush classics to regard the Cicada as the herald and harbinger of spring, the lateness of this first birth was a puzzle to his mind. A fortnight later, fancying he heard a frog quacking in a bush on the banks of the Po, he found that the sound pip! pip! came from a drowsy Cicada sitting on a damp spray, who was attuning his lyre to the stray glints that crept in among the dense soft foliage:—

attuning his lyre to the stray glints that crept in among the dense soft foliage:—

But can this be the Cicada of one's school days? I exclaimed. It is nothing like a "Grasshopper," as elegant writers such as Pope and Dryden maintain; nor does it seem as if it would "hop," as Wordsworth and Goethe would make out. No, it snot a "Tree Hopper." Cowley said it "danced." No, I don't think it dances. And it is not a Cricket, as another wiseacre, a German, has it! Nor a Leaf-cricket with a curly tail, as La Fontaine illustrates it! It used to turn its eyes and wink at St. Franciscus; but alas! its optics have become immovable. Well, here is my pocket Virgil and the explanation. "These insects differ essentially from our Grasshoppers; being found in warm climates alone, they have not, indeed, any English name. Their habit, noticed in the text, of sitting on trees, would alone make a distinction. In form they are more round and short than our Grasshopper; they make a much louder noise, which begins when the sun grows hot and continues till it sets. Their wings have silvery streaks, and are marked with brown; the inner pair of twice the length of the outer and more variegated." Well, but these are Lord Byron's "People of the pine, making their summer lives one ceaseless song." They are not a bit like the Cicada before me, pure and simple. I must describe it for our northern literati. Well, it carried itself, I think I may say, with somewhat the air of a gigantic bee, but in form it closely resembled the little froth insect of quickset hedges, to which it is near akin. In colour it was black, elegantly lined with blood-red on the body and wing-veins, or if Latin should be preferred, Nigra abdomini incisuris alturunque nervis sangainis. Any way it was a Cicada, sometime known as hamatodes, whose generic name is undecided. Cicada hamatodes, the Blood Cicada, satisfied Linnæus; Fabricius baptised it Tettigonia; and lately it has been proposed to surname it Melampsalla, and christen it Cicadetta. But this is getting as bad as

After devoting to the nature and habits of this puzzling insect page after page of rambling notices from "the poets" and naturalists of ancient and modern times, our author seems as far crickets, both diurnal and nightly. "The poet Meleager, to attune his lyre, sought the golden corn to capture the locust sounding his sweet-speaking wings with his feet... The maiden sitting in sun-shine, the rattle of the grasshopper commingling with the chant of the Cicadæ, forgets her lover and her tears; and one poet deems death itself unrepulsive should the cricket of the briar raise over him a monument of imperishable strophes." Not only poets, but musicians and men of science, have gone before our author in yielding to the spell excited by these stridulent insects:—

yielding to the spell excited by these stridulent insects:—

Nor is a music so full of poetry and so widely honoured wholly unknown to science. Many have been the attempts to render the songs of the Grasshoppers in music. Yersin, of the Vaudois valleys, who died young, was, I believe, one of the first to produce a score of the snatches heard among his Alps, and along the sunny Riviera. Brunelli, further back, was accustomed to keep a band of the Great Green Leaf Cricket in a cupboard, where they formed an orchestra, and whiled the day with recitative. The enterprising professor chirped a key-note, when at first a few of the boldest would answer, and gradually the whole choir struck in, and stridulated with all their might; refreshing interludes were obtained by a rap at the door. Recently a well-known author has testified to the pleasing nature of a solo from a select male of this species, confined under a glass on the table, which, as his music is only a little less deafening, might be preferable and more enjoyable than a Canary's.

The science of phonetics may, he justly urges, be much indebted to the study of the sound-organs of insects. The physicist and the mechanician may be enabled hereby to throw light upon many a subtle problem of acoustics, upon the laws of vibration and intonation. The best part of his book is perhaps that which treats of the organs of sound and hearing in insects. The author's first original discovery from actual dissection of Tettiges at Turin was that the part usually termed the mirror in these insects is in seality an organ of heaving. Fire of his seven plates are devoted that the part usually termed the mirror in these insects is in reality an organ of hearing. Five of his seven plates are devoted to the organs of stridulation and audition in the various orders, which are clearly drawn and as well defined as may be when actual motion, the phenomenon sought to be indicated, is the very thing necessarily lacking. Plate V. shows the abdomen of a male Cicada Blebeja, Oliv.) being cryptotympanous, or having its drum-covers concealed by a lap of the dermis, this skin has been cut away from the left drum, so as to expose the ribbed membrane. To the hinder point of this membrane the tendon of the motor muscle is attached, and by its action the membrane is drawn inward during the music, the sound resulting from its vibration on each rebound. The large internal air cavity is separated by a diaphragm, opposite to which are seen the mirrors of the cicada,

Insect Variety; its Propagation and Distribution, &c. By A. H. nton, Member of the Entomological Society of London, London, is, and New York: Cassell & Co. 1880.

showing an iridescent spot of various colours, centrally to which a little styliform thickening proceeds from their margin. The internal aspect of this part, which has the essentials of an insect ear, is shown in Plate VI., the supposed acoustic nerve being connected with the mirror. The motion of the abdomen when emitting sound is indicated by a blur. In Plate IV. are drawn the organs of instrumental music in Vanessa Io, the peacock butterfly. A strong magnifying power shows the filed aspect of the under surface of the submedian or anal vein of the fore-wing, nearest its inner margin. This vein plays its lima or file over the costal vein of the hind wing, when the insect rubs its wings together in stridulation. A raised pucker at the base of the hind wing, devoid of scales, may serve, it is thought, in impressing the vibrations caused by the friction of these veins upon the surrounding air. In the death's-head moth (Acherontia atropos) the filing of the with the adjacent surface of the proboscis, by the mutual friction of which its shriek is given forth. Plate VI. gives the organs of audition in Orthoptera and of stridulation in Coleoptera and Hymenoptera, the drum of Cicadidæ, the organ of smell in bees and gnats, and organs of circulation, variously magnified; and Plate VII. exhibits outlines of the nervous system in various orders of insects, including Cicada ignis and Epacromia thalussina (grasshopper). These and other points of insect anatomy are treated in more ample detail in the body of the work, the author's minute and patient observations being combined with the results of wide and careful reading. Tables of great value have been compiled, enabling the reader to seize at a clance the general scheme of nature comprised within the scope of owing an iridescent spot of various colours, centrally to which a bined with the results of wide and careful reading. Tables of great value have been compiled, enabling the reader to seize at a glance the general scheme of nature comprised within the scope of the entomologist. The most comprehensive of these tables gives an exhaustive list of the genera of insects that stridulate, admirably classified, the nature and function of the sound organs, with other details of their mechanism, being distinguished, and authorities referred to for evidence of their vocal qualities. Other tables refer to the secretion of larvæ or immature insects, the excretory due to the secretion of larvæ or immature insects, the excretory refer to the secretion of larvæ or immature insects, the excretory ducts, the scent organs, with their position and adjuncts, an approximate scale of scent being added, in which the several odours of insect secretion are brought into comparison with scents well known in nature or common life, as musk, box-leaves, pine-apple or fennel, guano, vinegar, or ratafia. The problem of the antennæ possessing the sense of smell as well as of hearing, together with the faculty of tact and mental communication, is discussed, and a list of authorities on both sides included in the bibliography of the subject. The conditions of reproduction and distribution under the laws of natural selection, specific evolution, and what are here classed as metaphysical incentives—the germs, i.e. of the passions implanted in these tiny forms—fear, rivalry, love, jealousy, and maternal care, with their varied modes of indication, come under our author's treatment, and testify to the wide grasp he has taken of his subject. With greater method in arrangement, and with the pruning knife With greater method in arrangement, and with the pruning knife applied unsparingly to his exuberant, and at times ridiculous, overgrowth of verbiage, his work would be entitled to a high place in the literature of insect life.

#### SCHOOLS AND TEACHING.4

WE have here two books either of which would by itself WE have here two books either of which would by itself offer a good deal of matter for reflection. By coming before us together they give occasion for comparisons and contrasts not without importance for English society at large, and chiefly for English parents who have sons to bring up. In Our Public Schools we have a series of accounts of what the leading schools of England actually are. They are evidently by different and independent writers, and apparently in each case by a writer who was himself at the school described; and their testimony to the facts may be taken as competent and trustworthy. Mr. Fitch's Cambridge lectures are the exposition by a man whose known abilities and services give special weight to his opinion of what he considers school teaching and discipline ought to be. Such a man's ideal, subject to permissible differences of judgment in this or that detail, may be taken as fairly representing the mind of those competent persons who have given most thought to the of those competent persons who have given most thought to the subject. Thus, then, we may say that we have the actual and the ideal of English schools confronting one another. Between the two there is a gulf which it will take long to fill; not that we

would for a moment disparage the good work that has already been and now is being done towards filling it, often under difficulties which outsiders, for want of knowledge or patience, wholly fail to understand. But first let us glance at the book of facts.

The foundations treated of in *Our Public Schools* are Eton, Harrow, Winchester, Rugby, Westminster, Marlborough, and the Charterhouse. It is hard to see on what principle these names were chosen or arranged. We can think of no reason why, if Marlborough is included, St. Paul's, Cheltenham, and Wellington should be left out. The order of the chapters is that in which we have given the names, and appears to be purely accidental. In one respect it is unfortunate, for the opening essay on Eton, though written with sufficient knowledge and in a lively style, is by far the worst in the volume. The lively style has been its bane. Instead of the serious and temperate kind of discussion required

Our Public Schools. London: C. Kegan Paul & Co. 1881.
 Lectures on Teaching, delivered in the University of Cambridge during the eat. Term, 1880. By J. G. Fitch, M.A., &c. Cambridge: University 1881.

by the occasion, the essayist has been tempted to adopt a smart leader-writing or even paragraph-writing manner; and the tone of his observations is flippant and captious throughout. He is a partisan, and we cannot say that he is a fair one. Hardly any person or thing connected with Eton escapes without a sneer. His general point of view appears to be that public schools are, on the whole, of more than doubtful utility, and that Arnold (who comes in for a little sneer too) did more harm than good by reviving their credit among the well-to-do middle classes. Most public school men, and certainly most Eton men, will think this manifestly absurd. We do not think so ourselves, though the view suggested is not our own; and we the more regret that it has not been put forward in a manner free from offence. It is an arguable opinion that the system of Eton is wrong in itself, and that such attempts as have been made hitherto to mend it have been inadequate and half-hearted. But such opinions are not legitimately maintained by casting supercilious ridicule on men who, whatever their intellectual shortcomings may have been, strove honestly to do the best work they could, being what they were, and having the work laid upon them under such conditions as they found. There is something not only unfair, but ungenerous, in some of this writer's remarks on living persons whose only crime has been the want of that reforming genius which is as rare among schoolmasters as among statesmen. Nevertheless, there is good substance in many of his criticisms; but the form in which he has cast them is eminently fitted to prevent them from being attended to by the persons most concerned. As an account of Eton designed for the

among statesmen. Nevertheless, there is good substance in many of his criticisms; but the form in which he has cast them is eminently fitted to prevent them from being attended to by the persons most concerned. As an account of Eton designed for the information of the public at large, the cynical bias of the essay makes it, in our judgment, altogether misleading.

A striking contrast is presented by the chapter on Winchester. The writer of this, while admitting that it is necessary to keep pace with the times, is fully persuaded that in the main all is for the best in the best of all possible public schools. What little we ourselves know about Winchester is good; but the high-pitched optimism of this essay seems to demand certain grains of salt to reduce it to anything like a common denomination with the others. "As for the masters," we are told, "they are a remarkably united body, and, in spite of variety of age, tastes, or opinions, there has never been any hint of disagreement among them." Let us hope that these things are indeed so. In the chapter on Rugby there is a good and temperately written account of Arnold's work. Rugby is, according to its describer, suffering just now from "the fault of being a little mechanical," the usual fate of systematic reforms when the inventing and guiding spirit of the first reformer is no more there. In point of substantial prosperity and success, however, there seems not to be much to complain of. The writer on Westminster strongly urges the removal of the school into the country as the only chance of giving it a new lease of life. Certainly the present results appear to be poor enough; but the question is a burning one among those who are nearly interested in Westminster and its fortune, and we do not presume to pass any judgment of our own upon it. The chapter of general remarks at the end on "Public School Education" is perhaps the most valuable in the book. Every part of it is worth attention, including the final suggestion (startling as it may seem at the irrst blus

and returning in the evening." Besides the reasons given by the essayist, it is quite possible that something of the kind may in the course of another generation, if not sooner, be forced on one or more of the great schools by mere pressure of numbers. Before leaving this book we must commend the outspokenness of more than one of the writers as to certain questions of moral discipline which it is difficult to speak of at all in public, but as much worse as it is much easier to ignore.

We pass on to Mr. Fitch's Lectures. He modestly describes them as of an "incomplete and provisional character." The incompleteness, however, is rather in the present state of the subject than in the author's command of it. Certainly there is nothing of haste or unripeness in his precepts. The lectures will be found most interesting, and deserve to be carefully studied, not only by persons directly concerned with instruction, but by parents who wish to be able to exercise an intelligent judgment in the choice of schools and teachers for their children. For ourselves, we could almost wish to be of school age again, to learn history and geography from some one who could teach them after the pattern set by Mr. Fitch to his audience. On the rational teaching of arithmetic, too, he gives excellent counsels not without their bearings, if people would see it, on higher mathematical calculus in a mechanical and unfruitful way as the extraction of square roots. But perhaps Mr. Fitch's observations on the general conditions of school-work are even more important than what he says on this or that branch of study. Such matters as light, arrangement of rooms, furniture, blackboards, maps, and so forth, have been till our own time very much left to chance. Here we may learn that in all these details the difference between the right and the wrong way is a serious one. There are good hints about taking notes and the use of books of reference; and we may add that even in higher instruction the art of using books is far too much supposed to come by lose many opportunities of extending their knowledge for want of hints which any one accustomed to work in libraries could give them in half an hour, but which, as things are, it is nobody's

business to give them. We turn out—or did turn out until very lately—finished scholars who have simply read specific books they were told to read, and are helpless in a library or a museum.

On the head of discipline Mr. Fitch's cardinal maxim is that of the second of

On the head of discipline Mr. Fitch's cardinal maxim is that of all rational lawgivers, whether for boys or for men. Law should be above all things certain; and an inadequate law really enforced is better than a nominally adequate one which is not enforced. In punishments Mr. Fitch wholly disapproves many things that are still much in practice—for example, the clumsy and unjust makeshift of a "general punishment" imposed on a whole class. Corporal punishment he regards as a power to be kept in reserve, and most sparingly exercised, if at all, but not to be formally abrogated. The master of a singularly well-disciplined day-school examined by Mr. Fitch told him there had never been a case of corporal punishment in the school, but asked that this should not be published. "I do not mean to use it," he said; "but I do not want it to be in the power of the public or the parents to say I am precluded from using it." We need hardly say that in at least one or two of our great schools corporal punishment, instead of being appropriated to a few faults of exceptional gravity, is even at this day so familiar as to be in contempt. And indeed we think that the ordinary school system of punishments as a whole—we should have to use penality in the sense of French publicists to give our exact meaning—contrives to get the least disciplinary value for the greatest expenditure of trouble and annoyance on both masters' and boys' part. Much of it is a survival of barbaric notions of justice which legislators have discarded for the last half-century in dealing with the worst of criminals; the chief of these is that the first thing needful is to punish somebody for every offence, the real offender by preference, but somebody for every offence, the real offender by preference, but somebody for every offence, the real offender by preference, but somebody for every offence, the real offender by preference, but somebody for every offence, the real offender by preference, but somebody for every offence, the real offender by preference, bu

which there were no means of testing, to make a competent acquaintance with Ovid's Fasti; a work feigned by long school tradition to be easy Latin poetry, as Cæsar's Commentaries are feigned to be easy Latin prose. Yet, by dint of much repetition of a process perfunctory in itself, Eton boys did and (we suppose) do get themselves in a manner saturated with Horace, whereby they never find out how difficult he is.

Mr. Fitch is no less instructive on the art of examinations and marking; but this we pass over as leading too far away, and go on to call attention to what he says of the teaching of science. This is so good that we prefer not to make extracts or attempt a summary, but simply advise the reading of the lecture as a whole. But we shall note the pregnant warning given towards the end, that science "does not mean knowledge, but knowledge obtained by right principles, and in a particular way. You may give a lesson on the future tense which shall be in the highest degree scientific, and you may give a lesson on the thermometer or on the satellites of Jupiter which shall not be science at all." One unlucky verbal slip occurs in this excellent chapter, the attribution of the saying Hypotheses non fingo to Bacon instead of Newton. Finally, there are some useful remarks on the limits of what schools can be expected to do. The schoolmaster's business is not to teach boys things which they can learn better out of school, but to make them apt learners both in school and out of it. Neither, again, should schools attempt the work of technical institutes.

A well-educated English gentleman does not, it is true, know so much about a stenn engine as an engineer, nor so much about the rotation of

A well-educated English gentleman does not, it is true, know so much about a steam engine as an engineer, nor so much about the rotation of crops as a farmer, nor so much about book-keeping as a city clerk, but he knows a great deal more about all three than either of them knows about the other two; and this is simply because his faculty of thinking and observing has been cultivated on subjects chosen for their fitness as instruments of development, and not on subjects chosen with the narrow purpose of turning them to immediate practical use.

One last word of explanation and warning seems needful. The British public listen complacently to the censures of educational reformers on the existing practice of schoolmasters, and think the schoolmasters have treated them shamefully. But the fault is at least half their own. After all, it is the boy's parents who pay the piper, and they have their own indolence to blame if they will take no pains to call the tune. Education is much more than an article of commercial supply and demand; and how far it ought to have that character is an open question. But it is so to a great extent at present; and when for two or three centuries consumers have gone on paying the price without making, or qualifying themselves to make, the alightest effectual examination of the thing supplied, it is only astonishing that the result should be no worse than it is. No reform of school discipline or teaching can produce its full effect or end in much lasting improvement if it is not backed by the moral support of home influences. How are schoolmasters to inculcate industry on a boy whose father plainly gives him to understand that it is no matter whether he works or

not, or obedience on one whose friends at home treat schoolboy escapades as rather creditable than otherwise? But, as our essayist on Public School Education truly says, "it is wonderful what the British parent will bear, and the evils he will allow his son to encounter, so long as he himself is not personally worried." A material condition for the reform of British education, if not the first condition, is the reform of the British parent.

#### AN ENGLISH SQUIRE.\*

WE have read An English Squire with much interest. It is by no mena a faultiess story, yet its merits are so largely in excess of its defects, that on the latter the reader will not be inclined, we feel sure, to dwell for any length of time. thing in these days when the storyteller's art has become "soiled with all ignoble uses," to have a novel that is at once clever and innocent, that is lively and amusing, and at the same time sets up and maintains a high standard of morality. So well written, and maintains a high standard of moranty. So well written, indeed, for the most part, are these three volumes, that we cannot but regret that, owing to a certain want of art, there are one or two great blunders. The author certainly overcrowds her canvas. At one time we were getting almost bewildered with the number of At one time we were getting almost bewildered with the number of young ladies to whom in rapid succession we were introduced. We felt too much as a man does who for the first time visits a large family, and is ushered into a drawing-room in which are assembled the half-dozen daughters or so of his host, all dressed alike, and all with the same smile and hair and complexion. Not, indeed, that the three or four heroines of the story before us are alike in their persons. They have a becoming variety, and, what is not always the case in novels of the day, each keeps to her own eyes and hair from the first chapter to the last. She who starts with a pointed chin and a creamy complexion ends with a chin that is still pointed and a complexion that has not ceased to be creamy. She whose eyes glanced and gleamed and melted after chin that is still pointed and a complexion that has not ceased to be creamy. She whose eyes glanced and gleamed and melted after a fashion wholly their own, did not live to see them glance and gleam and melt after a fashion that belonged wholly to some one else. There is no confusion of this kind to which we are only too much used in our reading. Nevertheless, as we have said, we do feel at times that the stage is inconveniently crowded; and we feel a little put out at seeing fresh characters pressing in, when with those who are already before us we are by no means so familiar as we could wish. Then, moreover, we must confess that it is by no means in heroines that Miss Coleridge's strength lies. Perhaps it is the knowledge of her weakness in this respect that leads her to double their number. We have before now, in the advertisement of a pantomime, seen a great deal made of the fact that there were of a pantomime, seen a great deal made of the fact that there were two clowns, two pantaloons, and two harlequins. One of each kind used to be enough in our boyhood, and one heroine always satisfied our youth. In the present story this excess is altogether needless, for the real hero remains a bachelor to the end. No doubt he was, at one time, in love with one of the heroines, but unhappily he chose the wrong one, and she treated him very ill. This part of the story we feel sure could have been managed a great deal better, and probably all the young ladies whom Miss Coleridge may number among her readers and admirers will agree with us. They, at all events, will not approve of her leaving a hero a curate and a bachelor. It is a bad example for every parish in the kingdom, and one that must be severely censured. A herothe kingdom, and one that must be severely censured. A hero— an English hero—may undcubtedly take orders, but he must get a wife and bring her to a rectory. A second fault in the story is the use that is made of a sudden death and of sick-beds to work the use that is made of a sudden death and of sick-beds to work great changes in the characters. No doubt by both one and the other great changes are wrought in real life. Novertheless, in this part of the book Miss Coleridge is wanting in originality. She is following too much in a path that Miss Yonge and others of her class of novelists have trodden more than enough. We feel that she plays with the hero's health much as a man does with his puppets in a show. He is pulled on to his sick-bed and off it just as the moral nature—not of himself, but of some one else—requires that some one else—requires that some other ways that the some one else—requires that some other ways that the some one else—requires that some other ways that was the moral nature—not of himself, but of some one else—requires that some influence shall be brought to bear on it from without. We are not at all content when we see a character who greatly pleases us afflicted with rheumatic fever or with a delicacy in the lungs, merely in order that another person, for whom we care very ittle, may be reformed. Heroes are not to be treated like the boy who of old shared in the studies of a young prince, and who was whipped each time that the future king neglected his task. If they are to be racked in their joints by rheumatism, or to be troubled with a bad cough, it should surely be for their own good that they suffer. Before we pass away from a consideration of the blowless of this interesting story we want explain explain. troubled with a bad cough, it should surely be for their own good that they suffer. Before we pass away from a consideration of the blemishes of this interesting story, we must exclaim against such barbarous English as "an unreliable vision." "Reliable" and "unreliable "never can be made good English. They are, indeed, only too popular with newspaper correspondents, but they seem sadly out of place when used by one who bears a name so honoured in literature as that of Coleridge.

Such faults as these serious though they cartainly are ward!

Such faults as these, serious though they certainly are, may well be forgiven for the general interest of the story and the excellence of two or three of the characters. One of these characters is so original as it is cleverly drawn. The story opens in the hall of a Westmoreland squire. We at once take to the hearty old fellownot indeed that he is very old, after all—and we take to him the more as, in spite of his strong frame and vigorous constitution,

<sup>\*</sup> An English Squire. A Novel. By C. R. Coleridge, Author of "Lady Betty," "Hanbury Mills," "Hugh Crichton's Romance," &c. 3 vols. London: Sampson Low & Co. 1831.

we see in five minutes or so that he is destined to die somewhere about the middle of the second volume. It is a melancholy matter to be the owner of an entailed estate and, at the same time, to be the father of two heroes—of three, we might say. As soon as the young fellows are old enough to fall in love and get engaged, the unhappy parent is sure to go out hunting, have a fall, and make a Christian end. Such was the fate of Squire Lester of Oakby. There was this consolation, that, though we had come to like him very much, yet we had all along, as we have said, been prepared for the blow that was to fall on him and on us. His sons, if they had been as deeply read in novels as we are, ought to have been prepared too. In that case, as most of them were very dutiful lads, they would have felt it their duty not to fall in love. In the Squire's family, as it is first presented to us, there is, with a due allowance of lovers of both sexes from without, an ample supply of interesting characters for a whole novel. The real hero supply of interesting characters for a whole novel. The real hero is Cheriton Lester, the eldest son in the group that was gathered together in the old Hall one Christmas Eve. From first to last we like him, and are only vexed that he is wasted with illness, and rewarded with neither a rectory nor a wife. As the story opens we learn that, though he was the eldest among the children gathered in the Hall, he was not the heir to the estate. His father gathered in the Hall, he was not the heir to the estate. His latter had been twice married. His first wife was a Spanish lady whom he had married when he was still a younger son. By his elder brother's death he had been suddenly summoned home; she had given birth to a son in his absence and had died. The child, whose name was Alvar, had been brought up in Seville by his nearlighter but as heir to an English estate he had, in accordgrandfather, but as heir to an English estate he had, in accordgrandather, but as heir to an English estate he had, in accordance with his father's wishes, been educated as a Protestant, and had been taught to speak our tongue. The Squire had never seen him till after the story opens. All his affection was for the children of his second wife, and this heir to his estate he looked upon dren of his second wife, and this heir to his estate he hooked upon as the supplanter of his favourite son Cheriton. Alvar, on his side, nursed a deep sense of the wrong that had been done him in this long exclusion from his father's house. His half-brothers and sisters, with the exception of Cheriton, were full of the good old-fashioned English intolerance towards a foreigner, and, moreover, were prepared to dislike him as taking the place of their brother, who was so justly dear to them. the place of their brother, who was so justly dear to them. Alvar's character, the perplexities that he is in through his entire Alvar's character, the perplexities that he is in through his entire ignorance of English ways of thought, the mistakes he makes, the absurdities into which he falls, the violence and sullenness that disfigure his conduct, the warm and tender kindness that redeems his faults—all these are described with great skill. They are cleverly contrasted with the virtues and the faults of his half-brothers and sisters, who had "an Oakby point of view" from which they regarded everything. In fact, any one who has been intimate with young Spaniards—especially with those who have lived any time in England—will acknowledge at once that, in delineating Alvar's character, Miss Coleridge has been very successful. We must admit, at the same time, that it is in the first half of the book that she succeeds best with him. The high merits of the delineation are not equally well kept up, when, by his father's death, he becomes squire. We fear, however, that the author does not hold the scales quite so impartially as she wishes between the English and Spanish systems of training. Certainly a squire's family in which, out of four sons, one takes a first-class at Oxford and another a double-first, shows an intelligence that is somewhat unusual. On the other hand, Alvar's indifference and absence of any active principle of conduct, though only too common in Spain, are most unusual. On the other hand, Alvar's indifference and absence of any active principle of conduct, though only too common in Spain, are most certainly by no means universal. In Seville these defects in his character may be only too true to nature. In the North-Eastern provinces there is commonly found, as is well known, real vigour and independence of mind. It would not be difficult for a Spanish writer to turn the tables by contrasting some of the best of his young countrymen with the Squire Westerne who still here

and independence of mind. It would not be discontinuous Spanish writer to turn the tables by contrasting some of the best of his young countrymen with the Squire Westerns who still here and there survive beneath the varnish of the nineteensh century.

We shall not follow Miss Coleridge through the various scenes in which with much skill she brings the natures that were so strongly opposed into harmony. Cheriton, from the very first, with his natural sweetness of disposition, was the agent by which this good work was done. But, as we have said, he is made, poor fellow, to do good chiefly by suffering. He is indeed very hardly treated; but, as he really seems to be contented with the lot of a bachelor curate, in a parish, moreover, where there was an entire lack of young ladies, no one else, we suppose, has a right to complain. On principle, however, we protest against such a melancholy end to a hero.

choly end to a hero.

There are two other very good characters in the book on which we can only touch. Cheriton's next brother, Jack, is a clever description of the radical Oxonian. At school he had been devoted to his young house-master, and wrote essays for his benefit, one of which was entitled "On the Evils inherent in every existing Form of Government." He had not been many months at the University before he had learnt, we are told, whenever he looked at pictures, to find fault correctly with what would have naturally been pleasing to him, and to admire much what a few months before he would have thought hideous. There are many touches of the same kind which we strongly recommend to the notice of of the same kind which we strongly recommend to the notice of the junior readers in the Union Society. Still better drawn is an old Westmoreland parson, who is very slowly brought into a state that made some approach to decent behaviour by his affection for his niece and the hero. She persuades him to let her start a Sunday school. Up to that time there had been no school of any kind in his parish. aind in his parish. He went round to the cottages, and rapped at each door with his dog-whip, calling out, "Eh, Betty, there's a

grand new start in Elderthwaite. Here's Miss Virginia going to turn all the children into first-rate scholars. Wash them up, and send them over to my house on Sunday morning, and I'll give a penny to the cleanest, and a licking to any one that doesn't mind his manners." So pleased is he with the result, that at last he exclaims, "I must set about learning the Catechism myself." Herein, by the way, he reminds us of that benevolent ecclesiastic, Gil Perez, who undertook to teach his nephew, Gil Blas, to read; "ce qui ne lui fut pas moins utile qu'à moi; car, en me faisant connaître mes lettres, il se remit à la lecture, qu'il avait toujours fort négligée."

Had we more space at our command we could dwell on other Had we more space at our command we could dwell on other characters in the book, which, though of less importance, are nevertheless cleverly drawn. As it is, we must be content with recommending these three volumes to the attention of all those who voluntarily read novels. We feel sure that, unless their taste has been spoilt by the corrupting literature that is too common, they will read them in spite of their faults, which are serious enough, with interest and pleasure.

#### THE HAMILTON PAPERS.

The Hamilton Papers.

To none of its members is the Camden Society more indebted than to its present Director, Mr. S. R. Gardiner, for interesting additions to its series of publications. Nor will many students of English history be inclined to demur to any judgment which the highest living authority on the earlier Stuart and Civil War periods may offer or imply, concerning the value of documentary materials belonging to the times in question. The volume before us is nevertheless likely to disappoint readers who, in a collection of papers edited by Mr. Gardiner, might not unnaturally expect to find one of two things—some really new matter, or some really new light. The earlier half of this volume will be lucid enough to those who take the hint given in Mr. Gardiner's laconic preface, and compare with the letters of the Marquess of Hamilton, now first printed for the Camden Society, the letters of King Charles I., together with the other documents and the connecting observations, in Burnet's still most readable Memoirs of the Dukes of Hamilton. But it will, we think, be found at the same time that little of importance is added by the publication of the original complaints of the unfortunate High Commissioner to what was already known from Burnet, though the latter may as a biographer have had his own shrewd reasons for not printing too many papers "so full and so particular," as he says these are, "in the Advices and Advertisements" which they contain. In the middle of p. 106 of Mr. Gardiner's volume, however, his series of documents suddenly, and without more than a marginal note of warning, takes a leap of a whole lustrum; and we find ourselves in days when the question was no longer as to who would take the King's Covenant, but as to whether the King would take the Covenant himself. The large majority of the letters which follow belong to the year 1648—perhaps, on the whole, the year of English history of which it is at once the most difficult Covenant himself. The large majority of the letters which follow belong to the year 1648—perhaps, on the whole, the year of English history of which it is at once the most difficult and the most interesting to study the various political transactions as a continuous whole. One might have hoped that, so far at least as his own documents are concerned, the editor of the Hamilton Papers, following the example set by himself as editor of the Papers Concerning the Relations between England and Germany in 1618-19, would supply a sufficient connecting thread, without, of course, anticipating the results of any more wide-spreading labours in which he is engaged. At all events, Mr. Gardiner and the Camden Society have accustomed us to rather more liberal 1618-19, would supply a sufficient connecting thread, without, of course, anticipating the results of any more wide-spreading labours in which he is engaged. At all events, Mr. Gardiner and the Camden Society have accustomed us to rather more liberal notions of "editing" than this volume exemplifies. Instantaneous deciphering without a key is assuredly not to be expected even from experts; but what possible profit can result from the printing of such a passage as the following, even in the publications of the most learned of historical Societies?—

But I have had no hearing nor discourse but civilities, except a little in privat with 20, which was interrupted d 34, 107, y 22', 26", w 81, 22', 57, 9, 26" but I can give no certainty.

By the way, is "sergeants" a very hazardous conjecture for the

By the way, is "sergeants" a very hazardous conjecture for the queried "gerganes" in p. 74 f

We used just now the epithet "unfortunate" in speaking of the first, and, so far at least as the vicissitudes of his career are concerned, the most memorable, of the Dukes of Hamilton. For, though we are strongly inclined to agree with Mr. Masson that Hamilton's ability was, "on the whole, chiefly of that kind which might come from mingling with men personally, with the advantage of being a Marquis and of the blood-royal," yet his ill-success and his calamities cannot but be in the main imputed to times which were too much out of joint to be set right even by a statemanship of far larger calibre than his. He is doubly unfortunate in the peculiar difficulty which must at the present day beset any attempt to render justice both to the ability which he indisputably possessed and to the loyal spirit by which we believe him to have been at all times actuated. On the most critical occasion in the whole course of his ill-fated Commissionership, he conducted an utterly hopeless case with so much accumen, vigour, and dignity, as to elicit from an opponent of his policy the confession that, "if the King have many such men, he is a well-served prince." Yet

<sup>\*</sup> The Hamilton Papers; being Selections from Original Letters in the Possession of His Grace the Duke of Hamilton and Brandon, relating to the years 1638-1650. Edited by S. K. Gardiner. Printed for the Camden Society. 1836.

he had never expected anything but utter failure at the Glasgow General Assembly, his account of which, written to King Charles on the day after its opening, is worth extracting from one of the most curious of the letters contained in Mr. Gardiner's

Most sacred Soueran.

I came to this toun on Saterday the 17, uher ther ar such a crue assembled togidder, and thatt in shuch equippage as I dare boldlie affirme neuer mett since Christianitic uas professed to treatt in eclesiastick affaires. The sucses of this meeting can proufe no other than that uich I haue formerlie mentioned, and I uill not trubill your Matti uith repetitiones of that uich is

mentioned, and I uill not trubill your Matt uith repetitiones of that uich is so unplesing.

Yeisterday the 2r uas the day apoynted for the dounsitting of the assemblie. Accordinglie ue mett, and treulie Sir, my soule uas neuer sader then to sie shuch a sight, not oune goune a mongst the wholl Companie, manie suords, but manie more daguers (most of them hauing left the guns and pistoles in ther lodgings); the number of the pretended members ar about 260, eache one of this hath tou, sume 3, sume 4 assessores, who pretends not to haue uoyce, but onlie ar cume to argue and assist the Comnissioners, but the true rasoune is to mak upe a greatt and confused multitud, and I uill ade a most ignorant on, for sume Commissioners ther ar, who can neather urytt nor read, the most part being totallie uoyd of learning, but resolued to follou the opinion of thes feu ministers uho pretend to be learned, and those be the most rigid and seditious puritance that liueth. What then can be expected but a totall disobedience to authoritie, if not a present rebellion, yett this is no more then that uich your Matti heath had just rasone this longe tyme to loke for, uich I uoold not so much aprehend if I did not find so greatt ane inclination in the bodie of your Consall to goe a longst ther uay, for belife me, Sir, ther is no puritan minister of them all who uoold more uillinglie be fred of Episcopall gouernance then they uoold, uhoos falt [it is] that this unluckie busines is cume to this height.

In general, however, he performed with no contemptible skill

to this height.

In general, however, he performed with no contemptible skill what may or may not be a morally contemptible task, but what at all events is one which most practical politicians are, at one stage or another of their career, called upon to execute. In other words, he centrived to gain time by negotiating, while all along convinced that his endeavours were perfectly useless for averting rebellion, and that no other means were left for teaching his countrymen "obedianes" except the ultima ratio of "curbing them by foorse." Read under the light of such disclosures, the argument contained in another of Hamilton's letters certainly gains strength—that the Covenanters would interpret the prorogation of the Edinburgh Assembly as a proof that the King never intended any of the offers made in his proclamations and declarations to be really carried out; while the virtuous indignation of the following passage in the High Commissioner's opening speech at Glasgow, as printed by Burnet, becomes just a trifte theatrical:—

The next false, and indeed foul and devilish Surmize, wherewith His

The next false, and indeed foul and devilish Surmize, wherewith His good Subjects have been misled, is, that nothing promised in His Majesties last most Gracious Proclamation (though most ungraciously received) was ever intended to be performed, nay, not the Assembly it self; but that only Time was to be gained, till His Majesty by Arms might oppress this His Own Native Kingdom; than which Report Hell it self could not have raised a blacker and falser.

On the whole, his success in "holding off," as he calls it, for so long the inevitable outbreak, although in the meantime he had to "uink" even at the "uickett and accurssed ministers" in whom he recognized the source of all the country's evils, proves him to have served his sovereign discreetly as well as loyally. Doubtless much of this success was attributable to a manner which must have well corresponded to the grandeur of his station—a station too near the throne to allow Charles I. in the days of his adversity to jud Hamilton with the generosity he had had to spare for him better times. Clarendon has, with his usual effectiveness, d better times. Clarendon has, with his usual effectiveness, described the mingled gravity, courtesy, and simplicity of Hamilton's manner; and Burnet takes occasion to contrast his self-restraint in speech with the volubility of the Earl of Lanerick, afterwards second Duke. It may at first sight seem strange, but it is of course perfectly natural, that in the first Duke's letters to the King we should lose sight of the diplomatic ability of the former in the midst of his complaints, certain to prove acceptable to his royal master, "of these people by me more heated" (sic) "then euer anie uas." If no representative of royalty has ever had greater difficulties to contend against, neither has any groaned more loudly to his master over the task imposed upon him, and thus himself more persistently contributed to widen the breach which it should have been the desire of both to fill. He thus contemptuously refers to what in his opinion is merely the pretended religious character of the Covenanters' movement, as if of set purpose to inflame the King's own religious prejudices:—

Itt is nou to euident and apeires playnlie that ther hes beine sume uhat

It is not to euident and apeires playnlie thatt ther hes beine sume uhat eales intendit more then the preservation of religion; for God knoett thatt heath onlie serued to blind the ulgar; for I cane assure your Ma<sup>tt</sup> thatt this Couenant of there is intended so to linke this ulcked people to ghither as they meaine neuer to obay anie of your Ma<sup>tte</sup> commands nor of your successoures bot shuch as shall be plesing to them selfes, and of uhat dangerous consequens this, is your Ma<sup>tte</sup> can best judge.

And so, caterum censeo :-

To find a remedie for this so great euill, I can sea none, exsept itt be by

Perhaps the hardest of his trials was one which even Irish Vice-roys and Chief Secretaries have never had to bear—namely, that he could find no native lawyers to do the work of the Crown on so all-important an occasion as that of the Glasgow General Assembly. The "Clerke Register" he considers "a ucorse in-strument then anie Couenanter." Sir Lewis Stewart has declared that, though he is ready to keep his back-door open, any public appearance on his part in behalf of Episcopacy would

lose him the whole of his practice in Scotland; and another lawyer, "on Gilmure," has used the same insuperable argument. The best man of all for the King's purpose would be Sir Thomas Nicolson; "bot even he, who never till now had anie religioune, pretends scruples in contience, nor can I with him in anie way prevaile." It might perhaps have been well for Hamilton had it been possible for one who was like himself both a royalist and a patriot to abstain, after the attempt at force had twice collapsed, from seeking to hasten the reconciliation on which the King's visit to Scotland in 1641 was expected to set the seel Though his loyalty was solemnly vindicated by Act of Parliament, it was no longer a loyalty altogether acceptable to King Charles—a prince who, as the history of his relations with Hamilton —a prince who, as the history of his relations with Hamilton helps to show, found it even more difficult to be just than to be generous. But we have less need to dwell on the strange and obscure episode of the arrest of the Duke of Hamilton and his brother at Oxford in 1643, inasmuch as, naturally enough, no documents of that date occur in Mr. Gardiner's collection. We may add that, as might be expected, Hamilton's letters contain only a passing reference to the relations between the Covenanters and certain "Inglish nobillmen" in the period between the first and second Scottish "wars." This reference is in a letter of May, 1639; not long after which date the sorely-tried statesman had the happiness of being allowed to withdraw for a time from public employment. public employment.

The interest of the latter part of this volume lies, we think, chiefly in the evidence once more furnished by it of the trickiness and insincerity of Charles I. at a time when, it is but fair to confess, few men would have held fast to what was noblest in their natures. It is easier for a king, especially when trained in the grand Spanish manners, to keep his countenance on the receipt of a fatal piece of news over a game of chess, than to deal fairly and can-didly by rebels bidding against one another for the makeweight of his acceptance of their terms. And it must have been more especially difficult for Charles I., who sincerely believed in his mission, to think it at an end when the news reached him, as it reached the

Earl of Lanerick in Scotland, that

but have not, as I heare, concluded anything, only 'tis reported they have amongst themselves uoted for Monarchy, and then, the question being who should bee the Monarch, Martin sayd if wee must have that government wee had better have this King and oblige him then to have him obtruded on us by the Scotts, and owe his restitution to them.

Indeed time seemed very swiftly to have brought to Charles an opportunity of vengeance upon the Scots after their surrender, or betrayal, of his person—almost too swiftly, inasmuch as the very Cavaliers resented the participation in the so-called Second Civil War of "that perfideus mercenarie nation." As is well known, the "rowtid naturall malice in the hartis" of Englishmen of all parties was abundantly satisfied by the result of the battle of Preston; and soon afterwards the first Duke of Hamilton was

Preston; and soon afterwards the first Duke of Hamilton was once more a prisoner, this time doomed to await the day on which he was to pay the last penalty of his much-doubted and much-enduring loyalty.

Some curious information concerning the fleet, together with a noticeable reference to "the business of the King's being poysoned," will be found in a letter dated June 24th, 1648, of which the greater part has been deciphered by Mr. Gardiner. There are other things in this collection of which he will no doubt make good use before he permits the 'crowning volumes of his important historical work to see the light of day. Meanwhile, we can only wish that he had found leisure and inclination to enhance the attraction which such a volume as these Hamilton Papers must possess for those who like to hear politicians of the past speaking attraction which such a volume as these Hamilton Papers must possess for those who like to hear politicians of the past speaking and to see them writing for themselves. That they should spell for themselves likewise is a matter of course for writers of the Fantastic age. At the same time, we have rarely been so much diverted with any spelling as with that of the first Duke of Hamilton. Perhaps his principles of orthography, which Oxford had failed to regulate, had been hopelessly vitiated during his German campaign under Gustavus Adolphus, from which no man could have brought back any single language unmangled or unspoilt. unspoilt.

#### DIXON'S ENGLISH CHURCH HISTORY.\*

WE said of the first volume of this work that its author is as WE said of the first volume of this work that its author is as yet but on the threshold of an enterprise which will contribute largely to our exact knowledge of English Church history from the Reformation downwards (Saturday Review, July 27, 1878). Mr. Dixon has spent nearly three years in preparing a second volume, which brings down his narrative only to an early period in Edward VL's reign—that is, from the year 1538 to 1548. Working at this rate we know not how to hope that he will live to complete the labour which he has boldly undertaken, and for the adequate completion of which he is well furnished with the most essential qualities—diligence, love of truth, habits of patient research, knowledge of human nature, and deep sympathy with it in its higher aspects. For impartiality Mr. Dixon would doubtless be loth to claim much credit, if by that term be meant the false liberality which, discerning how much might be said.

\* History of the Church of England from the Abolition of the Roman

<sup>\*</sup> History of the Church of England from the Abolition of the Roman Jurisdiction. By Richard Watson Dixon, M.A., Vicar of Hayton, Honorary Canon of Carlisle. Vol. II. Henry VIII. A.D. 1538-1549; Edward VI. A.D. 1547-1548. London: Routledge & Sons. 1831.

on both sides of an important question, is slow to commit the writer to either of them without reserve. Beyond a doubt our author views his national Church from what in cant phraseology would be called "an Anglican standpoint." He is proud of her primitive independence, and not unwilling to pay a heavy price for the recovery of her liberties from the grasp of usurpation, whether exercised by a foreign prelate or a temporal ruler. The result of the English Reformation is with him little better than the exchange of one hard master for another; so that in Henry VIII., in Crumwel, in the courtiers of Edward VI., he finds no more to praise than in a Gregory VII. or Innocent III. But here we are glad to observe a marked improvement both in tone and spirit in this second volume as contrasted with the first. Passages there were in the former book, written with so much bitterness of feeling against the overbearing tyrants and timid slaves of Henry VIII.'s reign, that we could not help asking Mr. Dixon what useful end they were likely to answer; we even deemed them a little unbecoming the position of one who is the incumbent of a parish, and in some sort a dignitary of the Church. We do not imagine that he was moved by our remonstrances, but rather by his own sense of the fitness of things. Certain it is that in the second volume his tone is widely different, under provocations at least as great. Even when, in its sure but silent course, a just judgment had overtaken that great transgressor Thomas Crumwel; when in the net he had made for others—a Bill of Attainder—his own feet were at length taken; there is no undue exultation over the wretched mans fate, but rather a tinge of natural compassion for a fall so sudden and so terrible. "A revolutionist who is nothing but a revolutionist—like a conqueror who depends only on his sword—must go on or perish." Such is the sufficient moral of that unhappy career. like a conqueror who depends only on his sword—must go on or perish." Such is the sufficient moral of that unhappy career.

perish." Such is the sufficient moral of that unhappy career.

The special subject of the second volume is the suppression of the monastic houses, great and small. Mr. Dixon points out that the details of that momentous revolution have never yet been brought together, and he has had to collect his materials from many scattered sources, chiefly from unpublished State papers. Certainly the tale is monotonous and fraught with sadness, but it is right for us to realize the fact that those leviathans of sacrilege is right for us to realize the fact that those leviathans of sacrilege—the Russells, the Audleys, the Seymours, and the Dudleys—only appropriated on a large scale spoils that were shared more or less by almost every gentle family in the kingdom. If, as has been sometimes observed, the houses of those who were enriched by the estates of the monasteries were soon made desolate, the punishment of the restricted more ridely the rise restricted. been sometimes observed, the houses of those who were enriched by the estates of the monasteries were soon made desolate, the punishment must have extended more widely than is usually supposed. Ecclesiastics, for the most part, kept their hands clean from this pollution. Kitchin of Llandaff stands pretty much alone under this evil imputation. Cranmer made "a good pennyworth" of Kirkstall, the gem of the yet limpid Aire. Thirlby took a single manor from Westminster when he passed on from that short-lived see to Norwich. Most of the other exchanges (usually of gold for brass) were forced on the bishops at every vacancy up to the very close of Elizabeth's reign; so that before Bishop Andrewes was preferred to Chichester in 1605, he had already thrice refused a bishopric on terms which his conscience abhorred. It is seasonable to be reminded by our author that what was popularly called the gift of an abbey from the king included not the lands, but only the site and so much of the monastic buildings as Crumwel's visitors left standing after they had seized the plate and jewels, and had sold the very lead from the roof. In some cases, however, even this was a noble gift, as, for example, the fields and gardens granted to Lord Russell, which extended from Covent Garden northward as far as what is now Euston Square; sometimes it was of but slight value. We commend to our readers the weary catalogue of spoilers of the monasteries compiled by Mr. Dixon's care, and congratulate those who find no ancestor of their own on the inauspicious roll of these "new monastics."

The political and civil events of the times are touched with a light hand, and are fairly enough regarded as familiar to Mr.

The political and civil events of the times are touched with The political and civil events of the times are touched with a light hand, and are fairly enough regarded as familiar to Mr. Dixon's readers. Thus a single clause despatches the sorry story of the King's fifth consort—"By this time Catherine Howard had avenged the former wives of Henry"; and nothing seems to tempt our author from this judicious parsimony save the desire to cast a dart at the very vulnerable armour of Mr. Froude, the only defender that Henry VIII. has found, or is likely to find, in our day. Mr. Dixon's summary of that monarch's character and its influence on those about him is written thoughtfully, and affords an adequate specimen of his style when at its best:—

Henry was indeed the man who was fittest to direct the revolution of the

specimen of his style when at its best:—

Henry was indeed the man who was fittest to direct the revolution of the rich against the poor. His stupendous will was guided by certain primary and unfalling instincts; his fierce temper would brook the domination of no human being. The subtlest flattery failed to insinuate itself into him, the haughtiest spiritsgot no hold upon him; arduous or splendid services awoke in him no sentiment of royal confidence. The proud Wolsey, the astute Crumwel, to whom in succession he seemed to have abdicated his kingship, found that they had no more power over him than the last dicer whom he had enriched. When he met with a conscience that resisted his enormities his resentment was implacable. . . . The well-known lineaments of this monarch expressed his character. That large and swelling brow, on which the clouds of wrath and the lines of hardness might come forth at any moment; those steep and ferocious eyes; that small, full mouth, close buttoned, as if to prevent the explosion of perpetual choler; these give the physiognomy of a remarkable man, but not of a great man. There is no noble history written in them; and though well formed, they lack the clearness of line which has often traced in a home-lier visage the residence of a lofty intellect. A great tyraut tries the nature of men; nor have we the right, if we witness, to exult over the spectacle of the humiliations, the frailties, or the crimes of those whose fears, whose cupidity, whose arrogance were excited by such a sovereign as Henry. Under him all were distorted, all were made worse than they would have been. It is the last baseness of tyranny not to per-

ceive genius. Of Seneca and of Lucan the slaughterer was Nero. the Eighth laid the foundations of his revolution in the English Era and set up the gates thereof in the English Petrarch.

This is good vigorous writing, but we fear that the gallant Surrey made a very English Petrarch indeed. Sir Thomas More lacked but the delicate grace of Erasmus to be his equal in wit and scholarship, as he infinitely surpassed Erasmus in courage and firmness of purposes

firmness of purpose.

We could more readily allow the benefit of the excuse suggested by Mr. Dixon in the above extract for Archbishop Cranmer, if he had maintained consistency and independence in the two succeeding reigns. But we fear that Dean Hook's picture of the man is far more exact than any that our author's tenderness would permit far more exact than any that our author's tenderness would permit him to draw. Cranmer seems to have been the ever-ready tool of men far worse than himself—of the Protector Somerset and then of Dudley Duke of Northumberland, no less than of Crumwel and his master. Mr. Dixon clearly looks onward with dismay to the tale he will have hereafter to report of those recantations by the Primate at Oxford which so sorely tried Dean Hook's honest and robust temperament. While relating the terrible circumstances of Anne Askew's death, at which Shaxton, the degraded Bishop of Salishure, had to preach a sermon which was to be his own public Salisbury, had to preach a sermon which was to be his own public act of penance, we read that "he was the first English bishop that had ever made so pitiable a public figure"; would he had been the last! Not but that Cranmer could use brave words enough on had ever made so pitiable a public figure"; would he had been the last! Not but that Cranmer could use brave words enough on safe occasions, but it must be to persons considerably his inferiors in rank. He had a dispute, for instance, with the prebendaries of the new foundation at Canterbury, and takes the opportunity, when writing to Crumwel, by way of whetting (if there were any need) the Vicegreent's insatiable greed, to advise the suppression of the whole order. "Experience has long shown that prebendaries are a set of men that spend their time in idleness. A prebendary is commonly neither a learner nor a teacher, but a good viander. The beginning of prebendaries was proposed for the maintenance of good learning and good conversation; and so were religious men [i.e. monks]. But the one state is as much abused as the other; they may perish together." Mr. Dixon's comment on this precious counsel is probably intended for members of the Cathedral Commission: "to a later age there was left the happy device of exploding the substance and retaining the name of the disputed dignity." Though prebendaries (now so called a non prebendo) can be no longer vianders, most of us know a few Cathedral precincts wherein sacred learning yet lingers, not as yet disendowed. Only, after such language as this, let us hear no more of Cranmer being an unwilling or appalled spectator of the Church robbery which he thus absolutely invites.

Stephen Gardiner appears, on the whole, to attract the largest share of our author's esteem, and that for a reason which none can deem inconsiderable. He believes that "wily Winchester" (Fox was great at alliteration, if at nothing else) was the only public man in that generation who knew his own mind and kept to it. Connected with Henry through Elizabeth of York his mother, in some sinistrous way, Gardiner grew up at Court as a sort of unrecognized cousin, and learnt early the art of walking warily on a slippery path. Being the elder man, and not the less able, he probably moulded Henry's mind whe

shippery path. Being the elder man, and not the less able, he probably moulded Henry's mind when the rejection of the Pope's supremacy with him was transformed from a mere political convenience into a wholesome and necessary doctrine. It is hard to believe that any patriotic Englishman, whether priest or laic, could contemplate unmoved the tyrannical usurpriest of laic, could contemplate unmoved the tyrannical usurpations and intolerable exactions of the Papal see, which had never, save for less than five years (A.D. 1154-9), been filled by a native of our island. All orders of the clergy paid to Rome the first-fruits, which then really represented the first year's income. Every year (even the first, when they received nothing) the tenths went the same way; English bishoprics and great preferments were reserved, often in plurality, for foreign, chiefly for Italian, priests; all monastic houses, all friaries, were exempt from episcopal jurisdiction. No more popular act was ever carried out than the abrogation of these interests of the product of the second of the friaries, were exempt from episcopal jurisdiction. No more popular act was ever carried out than the abrogation of these intolerable burdens; and in this work Gardiner went heartily with his royal master. The bitter enmity which had ever subsisted between the secular clergy and the regulars would make him indifferent to the fate of those who had long been thorns in the bishops side; but a change in the doctrine of the Church he resisted to the uttermost; the denial of Transubstantiation in the sacred elements seemed to him nothing less than a formal renouncing of the whole Christian faith. For that faith, as understood by him, he endured imprisonment throughout Edward VI.'s reign, and, if the necessity had been laid upon him, he would not have refused to die. When we come to Mary's reign Mr. Dixon may find it harder to vindicate Gardiner's entire consistency. He had again to submit to the supremacy of Rome, and that not only as one of the chief prelates of England, but as Chancellor of the realm and virtually Prime Minister. Yet even then, it must be remembered, he opposed the Spanish match to the utmost of his power; and, so long as he lived, the demon of persecution was kept fast bound. The guilt of exciting the unhappy Queen to the deeds of blood which have made her name a byword of infamy rests, not with Gardiner, but with the Spanish counsellors who came over with Philip, and we fear we must add with Cardinal Pole, whose well-nigh unparalleled misfortunes have procured for his memory an indulgence which, on his own merits, he could hardly lay claim to.

Every page of this volume contains fresh materials for the history of the critical era of which it treats, and enhances our respect for the writer's industry and sound judgment. Among the latest

of the events recorded is the introduction into Parliament of the draft of the greatest by far of the productions of the English Reformation—the first Prayer-book of Edward VI., the work of a Commission sitting at Windsor Castle, consisting of six bishops and six doctors, with the Primate at their head. Of these divines Mr. Dixon truly says, "They had good models and good sources of principles, and the researches of the present great school of liturgical writers have proved that they neither feared nor were unable to ascend to the highest Christian antiquity in search of purity." To this most just conclusion he is led by a careful review of the ancient sources to which the Commissioners resorted, which were chiefly, though not exclusively, the liturgies of the Latin Church. From Lee the Great (A.D. 440-461), whose "Tome" did such good service at the Fourth General Council, and who seems to have first revised Collects of an earlier date, Mr. Dixon passes in review the Sacramentaries of Gelasius (A.D. 492-496) and of Gregory the Great (A.D. 590-604). Then from the Roman Service-book, as modified by Gregory VII. (A.D. 1073-1085), he comes to Cardinal Quignon's Breviary of 1535, purged as it was too thoroughly to be cordially accepted by the Church of Rome, and so at length to the Tridentine Breviary of 1568. Nothing can well be more instructive than Mr. Dixon's discussion of the whole subject, especially his clear contention that the Canonical Hours were from first to last a monastic arrangement, rather interfering with and confusing the order of public service in parish churches. last a monastic arrangement, rather interfering with and confusing the order of public service in parish churches.

the order of public service in parish characters.

In our examination of his former volume we ventured to remonstrate with our author on certain mannerisms and tricks of style, strate with our author on certain mannerisms and tricks of style, which seemed incongruous in a serious work like the present. We cannot say that the second volume is quite free from this class of cannot say that the second volume is quite free from this class of faults, yet they are less frequently met with than before. There is in Mr. Dixon a certain dry humour which tempers his natural indignation when he has to describe acts of flagrant wickedness, and which sometimes seems a little out of place. The exploits of London and Legh and Layton, the tools of tyranny who visited the monasteries, their rapacity, their falsehood, their vile hypocrisy, are told in a mock-heroic strain which we could not quite enjoy. But told in a mock-heroic strain which we could not quite enjoy. But the author is master of a species of irony so subtle that we hardly know at times whether he is in jest or earnest. At whom is he poking fun in the following passage? Not surely at Leland, to whom we are indebted for many a characteristic note of time or place which, but for his ill-requited zeal, would have been swept away from memory :-

No sonor were the monasteries destroyed and their libraries scattered to the winds than the great antiquarian age was begun. In the beginning of the year \$545.50hm Leland presented his New Year's Gift to the King. This unhappy man, a clergyman, one of that inexplicable race who haunt old libraries, crawl around mouldering walls, dwell among tombs, and for no earthly advantage loss their youth, their eyes, their nerves, in poring over the various relies of departed ages; who hold a life to be well spentin clearing an inscription or rectifying a date; who maintain that what is old is venerable; and who sometimes publish a book at the cost of their substance, that they may preserve some portion of the past from the devouring vitality of the present.

It is a little too bad to laugh at those harmless enthusiasts who supply the rough materials which are built up into a fabric such as this fair history. We observe that Mr. Dixon has appended an index, which might be made more complete, to serve both his volumes. It is to be hoped that so unusual a course is not designed to prepare us for much delay in bringing out future instalments of his work. We believe that Mr. Dixon is already well advanced in middle life, and his task is hard and tedious. It would be sad—we must say it once more—if his labours, like Macaulay's, should be broken off in the midst, through a miscalculation of the powers of human endurance, or wilful blindness to the flight of time.

#### A MODERN GREEK NOVEL.

THE War of Liberation is to a Greek of to-day what the defeat of the Persians was to his forefathers—a reminiscence of glorious achievements and an incitement to further efforts in the cause of national freedom. An appeal to the memory of the brave men who fell at Marathon was a rhetorical device of sure and certain effect in ancient Athens, as we know from the speeches of their orators; and their modern descendants are equally safe in allading to the massacre of Scio, the sieges of Missolonghi, or indeed to almost any of the events that marked the phases of the memorable struggle that lasted from 1821 to 1827. There is this difference, however, between the two cases. The speakers who memorable struggle that lasted from 1821 to 1827. There is this difference, however, between the two cases. The speakers who descanted on Marathon in the days of Philip of Macedon appealed to memories which had become almost as vague and distant as those of the Spanish Armada are to Englishmen. Memories of the War of Liberation, however, are still as real to Greeks as those of the Napoleonic campaigns in Prussia are to Germans. There must be old men still living whose childish recollections recall the daily danger of death and outrage in which the whole mation lived for nearly saven years. We in England here totally recall the daily danger of death and outrage in which the whole mation lived for nearly seven years. We in England have totally forgotten the enthusiasm for Greece that was kindled during that period. We had then not long escaped from a threatened invasion of our own country; the inhabitants of the coasts of Kent and Sussex had actually seen the sails of the French men-of-war; and some, as we have heard an old lady relate, had even beheld the appalling spectacle of the crew of an English fishing-boat

transferred to the deck of a French frigate, while the gallant defenders of the hamlet were running in all directions to find the key of the battery. In consequence, the cause of Greece had warm goodwill in England, and when, in 1823, Lord Milton, as chairman of the London Greek Committee, spoke of "the sublime spectacle of a nation awakening into light and freedom," he appealed to feelings born of an imminent peril at home that was still fresh in the minds of everybody. Byron, again, whose popularity was then at its height, had made the beauty and desolation of Greece, the bravery of her sons, and the cruelty of her oppressors, the theme of almost every poem that he had written, and probably did more than all the other Philhellens put together in stirring up the interest of his countrymen. The result was an immense enthusiasm. At the present day. put together in stirring up the interest of his countrymen. The result was an immense enthusiasm. At the present day, however, these affairs have become matters, not of personned recollection, but of history. It needs some little research to become acquainted with them. Even the poetry of Byron is not read or admired as it used to be; and the incidents of the last few months of his life, his unselfish sacrifice of such fortunes he had to give the sound common serves of his addition to the as he had to give, the sound common-sense of his advice to the Greek Committee and their protégés, his own departure for On finir en neros son manuel.

and his death at Missolonghi, make but little impression on the preand his death at Missolonghi, make but little impression on the pre-Où finir en héros son immortel ennui ;

sent generation. Moreover, the cause of suffering nationalities has become a little hackneyed since those days. The "revolutionary principle" which alarmed the plenipotentiaries at Verona in 1822, and made them refuse admission to the Greek envoys, has taken and made them refuse admission to the Greek envoys, has taken wider and wider sweeps, and our active sympathies have been enlisted by turns for Poles, Italians, Armenians, Syrians, and Bulgarians, so that we have well-nigh forgotten our first friends in that direction. The Greeks themselves, too, have done much to change our friendliness into indifference, if not into positive dislike. The spectacle of their internal dissensions has not been edifying, and the insecurity to life and property that once subsisted there, of which the most terrible instance was the murder of the English travellers at Marathon in 1870, has made us regard their attempt at self-government as something very like a failure, and has inclined us to accept the brilliant paradoxes of Le Rei des Montagnes and La Gréce Contemporains as an impartial account of modern Greece.

des Montagnes and La Grêce Contemporains as an impartial account of modern Greece.

M. Gennadius, the translator of Loukis Laras, has been too long resident in England not to be well aware of these sentiments; and he must have rejoiced greatly, as a Greek patriot, when the publication of M. Bikelas's work—which first saw the light in an Athenian serial called the Hestia—gave him an opportunity of putting the other side. For such a purpose nothing could have been selected better than "Reminiscences of a Chiote Merchant during the War of Independence." Such a subject takes the reader out of the noise and dust of modern politics into a period where sympathy is sure to be, as heretofore, on the side takes the reader out of the noise and dust of modern politics into a period where sympathy is sure to be, as heretofore, on the side of the Greeks; and where, without fear of accusations of partiality, the writer can exhibit them at their best and the Turks at their worst. The form, too, is admirably suited to the end in view. An historical essay, or a controversial pamphlet, would have been far less effective than this simple story of suffering which suggests so much, while it says so little. The Roman Nationaux of MM. Erckmann-Chatrian have doubtless served as a model to M. Bikelas, as his translator admits. But he is no servile imitator. He tells his story with a natural freshness that is thoroughly original, and, by making his hero admit at the outset that personal bravery is not his strong point, he suggests very adroitly the cruelty of the Turks in persecuting such defenceless persona. Loukis thus excuses himself for not having borne arms in the struggle for independence: struggle for independence:-

struggle for independence:—

While thus narrating the ups and downs of my life, I owe it to you, my good reader, to make you more familiar with my own humble self. It is necessary I should confess to you, in all sincerity and humblity, why and wherefore I was neither morally nor physically fit to act then as I should now expect that my children would act under similar circumstances. This confession will not exalt me in your eyes, but my intention is not to mislead you by making myself appear better than I was or am now.

I said both morally and physically. The sad truth is, that I am weakly in body, and I have never been able to forget, in the presence of either men or women, the smallness of my stature; being conscious of it, I abour constantly under the impression that others also remark it. Even now, although I enjoy the consideration of my fellow-countrymen, although I often preside at their meetings—perhaps because only of my advanced ags, or because of their kindness towards me—I confess I can never get the better of the constraint which the sense of my diminutiveness begets within me. And, after all, I am now in good health; but, until I grew up into manhood, the infirmity of my constitution rendered my bodily appearance still more insignificant. Besides, boys were not then reared up as they are now. Neither at school nor afterwards had I any opportunity for bodily exercise.

Thus being small in stature and feeble, while in Panna Flouti's echool I.

exercise.

Thus, being small in stature and feeble, while in Pappa Flouti's school I had become the butt of my schoolfellows' jokes, and later in the khan at Smyrna I passed by a nickname of Loukis the Mite. All this, coupled with my own humble appreciation of my powers, was surely not calculated to develop within me a heroic turn of mind.

The speaker is no doubt a real person, but the translator admits that the notes given by him to M. Bikelas were of the most meage description. It is not improbable, therefore, that other narratives may have been used to supplement his, and that the incidents of the escape from Scio may have really occurred to some of the fugitives. The story begins in 1821, when Loukis and his father are residing as traders at Smyrna. His mother and sisters had stayed behind in Scio, and when the first ramours of an insurrection in Greece reached Smyrna, and signs of Turkish reprisals

<sup>\*</sup> Loudis Laras. Translated from the Greek of D. Bikelas by J. Genn na. Louden: Macmillan & Co. 1881.

became apparent, they managed to make their escape on board a schooner flying the Russian flag, and reached their native island in safety. In March 1822 they left the principal town, where they had hitherto lived, and sought refuge in their tower in the country. One morning they saw the Turkish fleet bearing down on the island, and the insurgent fleet in full flight. They felt that the danger they had so long apprehended had come at last, and they held a council with their neighbours in the little village church as to what should be done. They determined to seek the western coast of the island, opposite Psara, whence they hoped to be rescued. So they buried their plate in two sacks in the garden, and set forth. After a long and toilsome journey they reached the coast, where they found a vast crowd of fugitives already assembled. There were no boats, and the wind was blowing hard. So they continued their journey to Mesta, and there rested awhile. No Turks were to be seen, and they began to hope that the persecution had ceased; when one morning Adriana, their nurse's daughter, rushed in, pale and dishevelled, exclaiming "Fly! hide!" An old woman hid them in a stable, while the Turks pillaged, slew, or made captives of all the fugitives they could discover. Every moment they feared that their retreat would be found out; but at last the Turks went away, and a captain offered to give them a passage. For the exciting incidents that befel during the embarkation, which the Turks discovered at the last moment and tried to prevent, and the sad end of poor Adriana, who drowned herself on the voyage rather than survive her shame, we must refer our readers to the book itself. The incidents are not particularly new, but they are told with a dramatic force and a simple pathos that makes the reader feel that he has before him a true description of what real persons underwent. The fugitives could not be received at Psara, so they were taker on to Mykonos, whence, after wandering from island to mainland and mainland to island, t while died, and Loukis sound minsen the sole support of his mother and sisters. A lucky chance threw in his way a relic of their former stock, two cases of caps that had been consigned from Venice to their house at Smyrna. With the trifling capital, about 40l., which they realized, and which was preserved to him by the honest of a consul, Loukis commenced a retail business, which in former the breath him in a decent income. 401., which they realized, and which was preserved to him by the honesty of a consul, Loukis commenced a retail business, which in a few months brought him in a decent income. He had now been absent from Scio about three years, and a longing to go back and try to recover the valuables that had been buried under the apple-tree in the garden took possession of him. The story of his expedition, disguised as a peasant of Timos, his capture by the Turks, his liberation, and his return to his old home, which he finds occupied by the harem of Nejib-Agha, a Turk of rank, is admirably told, and is nearly as exciting as that of the flight from Mesta. By the help of his father's old gardener, who had taken service under the new possessor of the property, he finds the valuables and conveys them in safety to the house of one of his father's old friends. His reason for possessing himself of the hoard had been to provide marriage partions for his sisters; but it was destined to be put to another use. While loitering about the house he had caught sight of the harem, walking in charge of a eunuch. Among the children he had recognized, and been recognized by, his little cours Despina, whom he had last seen on the day of their flight from their old home. She had just time to whisper, "Loukis, save me!" To leave her in the Turk's harem was not to be thought of; so be set on foot a negotiation with the Agha for the child's massim. The whole family treasure was absorbed in the transaction, but Despina was set at liberty, and she returned in safety with Loukis to Timos. Need we add that in a few years he married her. Here the story breaks off somewhat abraptly. With the end of Loukis's sufferings, however, the author's intention had been realized. He had written them down because he feared lest

the end of Loukis's sufferings, however, the author's intention had been realized. He had written them down because he feared lest his grandchildren will not easily realize with what sacrifices and what tortures their well-being and our national regeneration have been purchased. Therefore I should wish that more of the survivors of that time would write their memoirs. For out of the history of individuals that of nations is formed; and the history of Greek regeneration does not consist alone of the mighty deeds of our champions by sea and by land, but also of the persecutions, the massacres, the outrages on defenceless and weak creatures; their stead-fatness amidst misfortunes; their faith in God, which strengthened and ultimately realized, though it be partially, our hopes of a better future.

M. Gennadius has done the work of translation with excellent Al. Gennadius has done the work of translation with excellent taste, and an almost complete mastery of our language. Indeed, we have only discovered one grammatical error. He appears to think that "news" is a plural noun; and, when he says (p. 20) that "news circulated," he adds, "they were often false." He has added a useful preface, giving an account of modern Greek literature, and a list of the other works of M. Bikelas, who, besides original productions, has translated several plays of Shakapeare. It appears that Loukis Laras has been already translated into French Italian Garmen and Danish. At the end of the sides original productions, has been already transmissions. It appears that Loukis Laras has been already transmission to French, Italian, German, and Danish. At the end of the story we find a few notes contributed by the translator, which corroborate, from well-known historical sources, the statements and allusions in the text. They are very advoitly put together, and will be found most serviceable by readers whose knowledge of the War of Independence has become rather rusty, and who may think the statements in the text exaggerated.

#### AMERICAN LITERATURE.

MR. HENRY COPPÉE'S title-page hardly gives a true idea MR. HENRY COPPÉE'S title-page hardly gives a true idea of the contents of his two unpretentious volumes (1). They really contain an outline of Spanish history from the Roman Conquest to the surrender of Granada, about one-half of the space being occupied with a somewhat fuller account of the Mahometan conquest and empire. The consequence is that the latter is somewhat meagre and, if not exactly incomplete, yet too compact, too much of a summary for the real interest and importance of the subject. Few periods of medieval history are more profoundly interesting, more instructive as throwing light on a most critical period, a most important element in the life of the modern world, than the invasion, ascendency, and fall of the Spanish Moors. The rapid development and decay of Islam is one-of the most remarkable incidents in the history of mankind, and no part of that singular episode is more striking or contributes more to explain and illustrate the greatness and the weakness of Mahometanism than the story of the Spanish Caliphate. To render the latter intelligible in itself, still more to explain its general significance, its bearing on the character and fortunes of Mahometanism at large, would require a much larger space, a much fuller treatment, than Mr. Coppée's method has allowed. But, on the whole, this part of his work is so well done that we cannot but wish that his scope had permitted a more ample and expansive handling of so great a had permitted a more ample and expansive handling of so great a theme. We cannot but close his volumes with a certain sense of disappointment, the keener because there is so much for which the ordinary reader will have reason to be grateful. As a contribution to ordinary reader will have reason to be grateful. As a contribution to the educational literature of America, to the works accessible and available to the ordinary scholar who has but a few years to give to the mastery of subjects not bearing on his professional career, the work is, we presume, all that it could be. The history of Spain has a signal and special interest for Americans, second only to that of England herself; but there are few European countries whose history is so imperfectly known to men of average education. of England herself; but there are few European countries whose history is so imperfectly known to men of average education, whether in England or in the States. Students in American colleges and in English Universities who have a fair idea of the course of English, French, and German history, have scarcely more than a general conception of the outlines of contemporaneous events in Spain, chiefly as they bear on or are connected with the fortunes of neighbouring countries. Mr. Coppée therefore could not, in writing for such a class, take for granted such a knowledge of the previous history of the peniusula or of the afterfortunes of the Moorish Empire as would have been necessary to render intelligible a work confined to the history of the Arab conquest and an account of the Mahometan civilization as there developed. He has known fairly enough, no doubt, what he might expect from the public to whom he appeals, within what limits his demand upon their attention must be confined; and, though we might wish that his sketch of the barbaric feuds between the successive Gothic hordes that overran the peninsula had been even briefer than it is—since no part of the dullest and least instructive period of history is less interesting to modern readers instructive period of history is less interesting to modern readers— we can hardly complain that in a work in which such an outline was necessary it occupies more than a proportionate space. What was at least equally essential and has not been quite so sufficiently executed was an account of the previous history of the Mahometa conquerors, an explanation of the circumstances and characteristic

executed was an account of the previous history of the Mahometan conquerors, an explanation of the circumstances and characteristics which led to the extraordinarily rapid growth of their power, and rendered that power after all so unstable and so short-lived. The most valuable, and, to the readers for whom it is intended, the most instructive, portion of Mr. Coppée's work is that which deals with the peculiar aspect of Arabic civilization and literature as developed in Spain. We can certainly commend this part at any rate of the book to the attention of a class of English readers analogous to that in America for which it was originally intended—to the fifth and sixth forms of our public schools, and to that multitude of general readers who have not, or think they have not, leisure for any full and first-hand or even second-hand study of the obscurer periods of history.

Some passages in the Proceedings of the Seventh Annual Conference of American Charities (2), and a clear but unfortunately brief article in the North American Review (3) throw light on a very painful phase in the existing social order of America—the treatment of the insane. That treatment is bad enough even in those European countries to which American reformers direct the attention and emulation of their compatriots. The English Lunacy Law seems to those who have studied it about as bad as it well can be, or would so seem if we did not know how much worse it was at no very remote period. Yet Americans interested in the question look, and justly look, to England as affording by comparison a model to themselves, as a very paradise for the most unhappy class of human beings, when compared with the infernal regions to which in the States those who have no power of protecting themselves are consigned. In this country there is far too little security against the imprisonment of perfectly sane men and women under conditions far more cruel, upon the whole, than those of penal security against the imprisonment of perfectly same men and women under conditions far more cruel, upon the whole, than those of penal captivity. It is but too easy for evil-disposed persons to clap a

<sup>(1)</sup> History of the Conquest of Spain by the Arab Moors; with a Shetch of the Civilization which they achieved and imparted to Europe. By Henry Coppée. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown, & Co. 1381.

<sup>(2)</sup> Proceedings of the Seventh Annual Conference of Charities and Correction, June and July, 1880. Edited by F. B. Sanborn, President. Boston: Williams & Co. London: Tribner & Co. 1880.

(3) The North American Review, March 1881. New York: Appleton & Co. London: Sampson Low & Co.

person of whom they wish to get rid into a lunatic asylum, paying the keeper thereof a high price to detain his captive, giving him the utmost possible interest in affirming the insanity of the victim. We know how little even honest lunacy doctors are to be trusted, how prone they are to see proofs of madness in everything like individuality or eccentricity of temper, and once he is imprisoned, and thereby presumed to be mad, the victim's chance of escape rests entirely on the judgment, tact, resolution of the Lunacy Commissioners, who are likely to be prepossessed with the conviction of his insanity. Yet Americans point, and justly point, to this as a state of things to which they earnestly, but very hopelessly, desire to approximate. There is simply no check whatever upon the imprisonment of any man or woman in an American asylum. There is no inspection, and the asylum-keepers, we are told, form a league to exclude all external supervision or control, a trades-union to ruin any chaplain, local trustee, or subordinate official who shall presume to disclose even to a public authority the secrets of the prison-house. The treatment of the insane is as bad and brutal as it was in English asylums a century ago. These are the facts, not as they appear to us, but as they are formally and publicly stated over the signatures of responsible men in the most respectable organs of American opinion. The facts given are simply horrible. We read at this time of men and women chained organs of American opinion. The facts given are simply ble. We read at this time of men and women chained horrible. We read at this time of men and women chained naked in the straw, beaten, bruised, their bones broken by the brutality of keepers—as our grandfathers read when first the treatment of the insane was made a subject of philanthropic effort in this country. But we find, to our utter amazement, that hardly an effort has yet been made to carry through the State Legislatures an Act throwing open the asylums to public inspection, nor are we aware of a single case in which condign punishment has been inflicted on the perpetrators of these outrages. We have every reason to believe that the asylums in which the worst of them occurred are still under the management of the offenders; we are told at any rate, that there is no check which the worst of them occurred are still under the management of the offenders; we are told, at any rate, that there is no check whatever, except such as may be imposed by local trustees upon their own nominees and protégés. And it stands on record that witnesses summoned to tell the truth as to what they themselves witnesses summoned to fell the truth as to what they themselves have seen done within the asylum walls have been threatened with dismissal should they dare to fulfil their public duty; nay, that their employers have even presumed to speak of honour as binding them to silence! Here is one more among many examples afforded, not by America alone, how very little the enthusiasts of democratic freedom care for personal liberty, how little the idolaters of Humanity care to protect the first and most sacred of human rights. We confess to having been at first startled and almost incredulous; but we fear that there can be but little doubt as to the truth. It is known that all the stringency of our own laws of inspection is not sufficient to prevent grave abuses. We may imagine what must be the state of things in a country where inspection does not exist, and where public opinion is so inwhere inspection does not exist, and where public opinion is so in-different that no earnest effort has heretofore been made to obtain

where inspection does not exist, and where public opinion is so indifferent that no earnest effort has heretofore been made to obtain such security as inspection can give.

Dr. Lee's Coroner's Handbook (4) may probably be of use to the classes for whom it is intended, even on this side the Atlantic. It contains much information, many novel facts and suggestions, wholly independent of the local law, which appears to differ more on this than on most similar subjects in England and the United States. As a rule, in all those practical matters of legal right and wrong with which ordinary people are liable to find themselves concerned, the law of the Northern and South-Eastern States at least differs little from our own; even where a complete codification has superseded the complexities and uncertainties of the Common Law, the latter is still the basis on which the new and probably simpler edifice has been constructed. But respecting the office of the coroner, itself one of the oldest creations of the Common Law, we are informed by Dr. Lee that most of the States have superseded the unwritten code by statutes distinctly defining the coroner's functions and duties; and the handbook contains almost as many references to foreign as to English practice. To the non-professional reader the most interesting parts of the work will be those which deal with post-mortem examinations and the means devised by men of long practical experience or of inventive genius to solve with greater certainty the multiplicity of questions of fact liable to arise in cases of sudden death, of suspected violence or poison, and the many difficulties that cerolex the coroner's jurisdiction. ultiplicity of questions of fact liable to arise in cases of sudden ath, of suspected violence or poison, and the many difficulties at perplex the coroner's jurisdiction.

death, of suspected violence or poison, and the many difficulties that perplex the coroner's jurisdiction.

Mr. Holden's brief memoir of Sir William Herschell (5) is confessedly based on data already in print; it is in fact an abridgment of the memoir by Sir William's sister; as the review annexed of his astronomical works is drawn from his published papers. The book is in short little more than a summary of different accessible materials; but may be not the less acceptable to many who have not the leisure or the interest in the subject to have mastered those materials in their more elaborate form.

We have two collections of sayings—Mr. Ballou's Pearls of Thought (6), chiefly from English and American writers, a vast majority of which are at best seed pearls of little or no lustre; and Mr. De Finod's translation of A Thousand Flashes of French Wit,

Wisdom, and Wickedness(7), mostly, we must admit, brilliant, many of them well available for quotation, and not a few so unfamiliar that they may be safely stolen by such wits of the dinner-table as have sufficient self-confidence to believe that they may dare to take credit for them.

credit for them.

Mr. Munger's On the Threshold (8) is a collection of essays, full of good advice for young men, more likely to obtain a hearing than most such advice, but hardly, we think, more likely to be remembered or to be useful when required.

Mr. Allen's Fragments of most such advice, but hardly, we think, more likely to be remembered or to be useful when required. Mr. Allen's Fragments of Christian History (9) consists of a collection of papers from various periodicals on different passages of ecclesiastical history, the best of which perhaps is that on the Mind of Paganism, an account of heathen thought during the first century of the Church, which has at any rate the merit of expressing the author's own views, and not simply repeating the received ideas upon the subject.

Mrs. Spofford's essays on the Servant Girl Question (10) are, it is only just to say, more readable than might have been expected from the triteness of the subject. It may be that American experience on the subject differs so much from our own as to give her work the advantage of novelty; but we incline to think that the

rience on the subject differs so much from our own as to give her work the advantage of novelty; but we incline to think that the amusement it affords is principally due to its discursiveness. The author's feeling evidently is that women are underrated and underpaid, that they do more than their share of the world's work, and get much less than their share both of pudding and praise.

Mr. Ingersoll deals with a pleasanter topic. His "friends worth knowing" (11) are snails, mice, birds, snakes, and the like; and upon each he has much that is novel and entertaining to tell us. His works were not still the work may be cardially recommended to men works.

upon each he has much that is novel and entertaining to tell us. His modest little work may be cordially recommended to men, women, and children—above all to that class of young people who, not being accustomed to or not caring for pets, are apt to treat animals in general with a cruelty that springs as much from ignorance and consequent indifference as from any worse feeling. Mr. Ingersoll abstains from lecturing on this subject, and on that account his work is likely to be all the more instructive and effective.

Mr. Nevin's Vignettes of Travet (12) deal at some length with English and Italian politics and contain some rather remarks he

English and Italian politics, and contain some rather remarkable blunders. The chapter, for instance, upon the House of Lords contains more inaccuracy, and gives a more completely false idea of the position of the oldest Senate of the modern world than might have been expected from the most careless of American chapters.

Captain Mason's memoir of General Garfield (13) has, in common with the preceding works, the merit of comparative brevity. The President of the United States fills a place in the eye of the

world that certainly renders it worth the while of political observers to give that brief study of his character and antecedents which this modest little volume demands.

We cannot say the same for Mr. Carter's Reminiscences of the American Courts and Bar (14). The book might have been very amusing and very readable if it had been condensed to one-fourth of its actual size. It is rather personal than historical, and rather aneedotic than biographical; not very instructive or illustrative, and too lenothy to be called entertaining.

and rather anecdotic than biographical; not very instructive or illustrative, and too lengthy to be called entertaining.

Dr. Wilson's "Easy Lessons in Sanitary Science" (15) contain a good deal of curious information respecting the conditions of drainage on different American soils, particularly concerning the difficulty of adequately draining that low, sandy alluvial which forms so large a part of the Atlantic seaboard, and the Southern portion of which at least is almost invariably malarial. The pinebarrens, on the contrary, though the soil and subsoil be very similar in character, are notoriously healthy. Dr. Wilson accounts for this in character, are notoriously healthy. Dr. Wilson accounts for this on an entirely novel and by no means improbable ground, pointing on an entirely novel and by no means improbable ground, pointing out that the roots of decayed pine-trees form excellent drains, carrying the water down to a considerable depth, where it may easily run off, and that the decay of the weaker trees is so rapid as to maintain a continual supply of such drainage.

Mr. G. F. Seward, late United States Minister to China, has dealt with the question of Chinese immigration (16) in its various aspects at great length, and with an impartiality which, considering the unpopularity of the right side of the question, must be con-

(7) A Thousand Flashes of French Wit, Wisdom, and Wichedness. Collected and Translated by J. De Finod. New York: Appleton & Co. London: Trübner & Co. 1880.
(8) On the Threshold. By Theodore T. Munger. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin, & Co. London: Trübner & Co. 1881.
(9) Fragments of Christian History to the Foundation of the Holy Roman Empire. By Joseph Henry Allen, Author of "Hebrew Men and Times," &c. Boston: Roberts Brothers. London: Trübner & Co. 1880.

1880.
 (10) The Servant Girl Question. By Harriet Prescott Spofford. Boston:
 Houghton, Mifflin, & Co. London: Trübner & Co. 1881.
 (11) Friends Worth Knowing: Glimpses of American Natural History
 By Ernest Ingersoll. Illustrated. New York: Harper Brothers. London:
 Trübner & Co. 1881.

Trübner & Co. 1831.

(12) Vignettes of Travel: some Comparative Sketches in England and Italy. By W. W. Nevin. Philadelphia: Lippincott & Co. London: Sampson Low & Co. 1831.

(13) The Life and Public Services of James A. Garfield, Twentieth President of the United States. By Captain F. H. Mason, late U.S.A. With a Preface by Bret Harte. London: Trübner & Co. 1831.

(14) The Old Court House: Reminiscences and Anecdotes of the Court and Bar of Cincinnati. By Judge Carter. Cincinnati: Thomson. London: Sampson Low & Co. 1880.

(15) Drainage for Health; or, Easy Lessons in Sanitary Science. By Joseph Wilson, M.D. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston. London: Trübner & Co. 1881.

(16) Chinese Immigration in its Social and Economical Aspects.
George F. Seward, late United States Minister to China. San Francis
Bosqui & Co.

<sup>(4)</sup> Handbook for Coroners. By John G. Lee, M.D. Philadelphia: W. Brotherhead, 1881.

<sup>(5)</sup> Sir William Herschell; his Life and Works. By E. S. Holden. New York: C. Scribner's Sons. London: Trübner & Co. 1881.

(6) Pearls of Thought. By Maturin M. Ballou, Author of "Treasury of Thought," &c. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin, & Co. London: Trübner & Co. 1881.

sidered commendable. The book deserves a fuller notice than can be given it in this place, and is certainly worth the attentive study of all who wish to master a subject not unlikely to become inte-

be given it in tins place, and is certainly worth the attentive study of all who wish to master a subject not unlikely to become interesting to our own Pacific colonies, as well as to the States of California and Oregon.

The great quarto monograph on the Odontornithes, or extinct toothed birds of North America (17), by Professor Marsh, is a most important contribution to palecontology, and to the practical history of evolution. Technically it is but an appendix to the geological exploration of the Fortieth Parallel, a work which has already attained the size and character of a vast encyclopædia, and is, we believe, still in many directions incomplete; practically it is an independent scientific work of no ordinary value.

Dr. Michels has given in a convenient and tolerably cheap quarto an account, illustrated by plates in black and white, of the current gold and silver coins of all nations (18), going back in some cases to the sixteenth century. There are more elaborate and complete works on the same subject, but mostly executed in a style and at a cost which confines them to libraries of reference. The present volume is within the means of any student of namismatics.

Mr. Avers has his own ideas of orthogon (10) ideas with which matics.

namismatics.

Mr. Ayres has his own ideas of orthoëpy (19), ideas with which we do not find ourselves always in accord.

Mr. Hazletine's tiny handbook of English and American education (20) is useful and convenient to those who may care to compare the formal rules, studies, and discipline of the Universities and colleges on either side the Atlantic.

Mr. Washburn's Unknown City (21) is a novel of New York life, of which it gives a somewhat sensational, and by no means agreeable, picture.

able, picture

agreeable, picture.

Among reprints, new editions, and the like we may mention a beautifully illustrated edition of Mr. Bryant's Thanatopsis and Flood of Years (22), his first and last poems; the one published in 1817, the other in 1876. It is not often that a period of all but sixty years elapses between the first and last of a poet's published works, and that both are deservedly popular. Messrs. Putnam publish a translation of the Loyal Ronins (23), perhaps the best known of Japanese romances or legends, in which a Japanese writer has co-operated with Mr. Edward Greey, while the illustrations are contributed by another Japanese.

Mr. Bayard Taylor's dramatic works are collected in a single rolume (24), issued by Messrs. Houghton of Boston and Messrs. Trübner.

Mr. Warner republishes his Winter on the Nile (25), a work of by any means devoid of merit or interest, but somewhat too not by any means devoid of merit or interfull and elaborate for a subject so familiar.

(17) Odontornithes: a Monograph on the Extinct Toothed Birds of North
America. By Professor O.C. Marsh. Illustrated. Washington: Government Printing Office. London: Trübner & Co. 1880.

(18) The Current Gold and Silver Coins of all Nations. By
J. O. Michels, Ph.D., M.A. Illustrated. Philadelphia: R. S. Menamin.
London: Trübner & Co. 1880.

(19) The Orthoöpist: a Pronouncing Manual. By Alfred Ayres. New
York: Appleton & Co. 1880.

(20) Harper's Half-Hour Series.—British and American Education: the Universities of the two Countries compared. By M. W. Hazletine. New York: Harper Brothers. 1880.

(ork: Harper Brothers. 1880.

(21) The Unknown City: a Story of New York. By W. T. Washburn, Author of "Fair Harvard," &c. New York: Haney & Co.

(22) Bryant's First and Last Poems: Thanatopsis; The Flood of Years. Illustrated. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1878-9.

(23) The Loyal Ronins: an Historical Romance. Translated from the spanese of Tamenaga Shunsui, by Shinichiro Sarto and Edward Greey. Blustrated by Kei-Sai yei-Sen, of Yedo. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. Condon: Sampson Low & Co. 1880.

(24) The Dramatic Works of Bayard Taylor. With Notes by Marie ansen-Taylor. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin, & Co. London: Trübner &

(25) My Winter on the Nile. By C. Dudley Warner, Author of "In the Levant," &c. New Edition, Revised. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin, & Ca. London: Trübner & Co. 1881.

We beg leave to state that we decline to return rejected Communications; and to this rule we can make no exception.

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The Town Council of Nottingham have resolved to appoint FOUR PROFESSORS, as follows:

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other or those departments.

Applicants are invited to specify the subjects which they would be prepared to undertake, Applications for the above appointments to be addressed to the Town Clerk, Municipal Offices, Nottingham, endorsed "University Colleges" on or before the 7th day of May next. Particulars of saluries, duties, and conditions will be sent upon application to the Town Clerk. Candidates are especially requested to absting from canvassing.

Municipal Offices, Nottingham, March 22, 1881. SAM. GEO. JOHNSON, Town Clerk.

INSTITUTION of NAVAL ARCHITECTS.—SESSION 1881. The MEETINGS will be held on April 6,7, and 8 in the Hall of the Society of Arts. John Street, Adelphi (by permission of the Council). The Right Hon, the Earl of KAYENS-WORTH, President, will occupy the Chair. For Cards of Admission apply to the SECRETAIN, 5 Adelphi Terrace, Strand, W.C.

HYDE PARK COLLEGE for LADIES, 115 Gloucester
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The EASTER JUNIOR TERM begins April 1, and closes July 10.
The EASTER SENIOR TERM begins April 29, and closes July 10.
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CLIFTON COLLEGE CLASSICAL, MATHEMATICAL, and NATURAL SCIENCE SCHOLARSHIPS.—NINE or more open to Competition at Midsummer 1881, value from 125 to 130 a year, which may be increased from a special fund to 500 a year in cases of Scholars who require it.—Further particulars from the HRAD MASTRE, or SECRETARY, the College, Clifton, Bristol.

POSSALL SCHOOL.—ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS.—
Twelve to be competed for, June 28. Value from 70 Guineas (covering School Fees)
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long been admitted.
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enterprise be carried out on sound business principles.

Such Buildings, when exceted in suitable localities, are found to yield a large return on the capital invested, and to rank amongst the BEST HOME INVESTMENTS, being free from speculative risks and from the fluctuations generally attending ordinary commercial enterprise.

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Reserve Fund.

No promotion money has been or will be paid. The whole expense of establishing the Company will be restricted to the legal expenses attending the establishment and registration of the Company, and to the issue and publication of this Prospectus.

Application for Shares should be accompanied by a deponet of Five Shillings per Share. In the event of no Allotiment stabling place, the Deponit Money will be returned in full.

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